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ORIGINAL PAPERS.

MODERN PARIS: *Or a journey from London to Paris ; through Holland ; with a General Survey of the French Metropolis, relative, chiefly, to Population, Commerce, Arts, Sciences, Literature, Education, Customs and Religion. In Letters to a Gentleman in New-England. By Frederick Hall, A. M. Professor of Mathematicks and Natural Philosophy in Middlebury College.**

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PREFACE.

THE history of the following Letters may be given in few words. The Author left London for the continent, in August 1807, with the intention to pass three or four months, only, in

* As that part of the work, which the Author's ill-health has not yet allowed him to revise and correct, may, at some future period, be given to the world, in this Magazine, the Editors think it proper to publish the whole of the *title-page* of the manuscript ; although the Letters, which are now placed at their disposal, do not contain a discussion of all subjects therein enumerated.

France, and then return to Great Britain, and spend the ensuing winter at Edinburgh. A new interdiction (noticed in one of the Letters) of all intercourse between the two grand belligerent powers, issued by order of Bonaparte, and accompanied with penalties of an extraordinary kind, rendered it inexpedient to attempt revisiting England, at the period proposed.—Fixed at Paris, the Author determined to devote a portion of his time, to the continuation of a series of letters, commenced soon after his arrival in Europe, at the particular request, and for the gratification, of a very intimate and dear friend, in New-England.*

The letters were composed, in a manner as concealed as possible from the view of all but the writer himself, and were transmitted to America, by private conveyance. Not one of them was suffered to pass through the French mail. In these, were comprised an account of only the most interesting facts and objects, which presented themselves to the eyes and ears of the Author. Matter of inferior importance was registered in a commonplace-book. But every person, at all acquainted with the wonderful, and *alarming*, perfection of the French police, must know, that circumstances regarding the imperial family, or the government, frequently occur to a foreigner residing in Paris, which it would not be prudent to record in a journal, or to communicate in the most secret letter. A discovery of this sort, by the police—that Beast, with more than seven heads—that Argus, with more than a hundred eyes—would, probably, cause an abridgement of the stranger's freedom, and, perhaps, endanger his life. Intelligence of such a description the Author, therefore, thought proper to intrust to his memory, till he should arrive in a country, where the rational liberty of the tongue, and of the pen, had never been, and he hoped never would be, crushed to the ground, and trampled on, by the iron

* Professor Silliman's interesting and popular journal has rendered those letters, which were written in England, unimportant to the publick.

foot of despotism. The facts, thus desposed of, were committed to paper, after his return to the land of his nativity.

On visiting the Gentleman, to whom the Letters from France were directed, it was found they had all fortunately arrived, three or four excepted, and had been perused by a number of the writer's friends, who now solicited their publication.

The Author, believing the favourable reception, which his Letters had met, from those who had read them, was owing to a partiality for the writer, which the publick could not be expected to feel ;—and, as they were composed in haste—not for general, but for private inspection ;—was determined to withhold them from the press. It was observed by those, who were urgent for their publication, that nothing had been written concerning Paris since the commencement of hostilities between France and England,—that, though most of the facts here noticed might not be new, or peculiarly interesting to an Englishman, or an American, who had travelled much, or resided long, in France, yet they would be serviceable to a large majority of the people of the U. States—and to decline giving them to the publick, on account of the clumsiness of their dress, would be like withholding a coat from a naked man, because it was not of the colour, which you, and, perhaps he, could have wished.

Influenced by these, and other considerations, the Author consented, that, if no work, of a similar nature, appeared within a year from the period of his arrival in America, he would revise and print his Letters.

He then expected, that his friend, Mr. Walsh, who has since given the world a “Letter on the Genius and Dispositions of the French Government”—a composition of no ordinary merit—would issue a work on the present state of Paris, which, it is believed, he had in contemplation while in Europe.—But no production of a like kind made its appearance ;—the year expired—and the Author set himself to review and arrange his Letters.

A question now occurred, Whether they should be sent into

the world nearly as they were originally written, or be made to undergo some essential alterations. The Author's natural indolence pled for their publication without any material change. It urged, that they could be ready for the press more speedily—that they would appear more natural, and, probably, be more interesting to most readers.—But the prospect of being more useful to that part of the community, which it is most desirable to gratify; and to himself;—and the obliging proffer of the loan of a number of late and valuable French books, from which corrections, and improvements might be made in his work; by his acquaintances in and near Boston, who are requested to accept of the Author's sincerest acknowledgments for the favour, induced him to new-model and re-write the whole of his Letters. He applied himself to the undertaking, and had almost half accomplished it, when sickness suddenly arrested his progress, and rendered him incapable of writing for nearly a year, since which time frequent ill health, and the variety of duties, which his office devolves on him, have entirely forbidden his advancing further in the work. The anxiety, which the publick might once have felt to peruse it, has, it is likely, partially subsided; and indeed the writer was, long ago, compelled to relinquish the design of publishing it in volumes, according to his original intention.

That portion of it, which is completed, the Author has committed to the Editors of the "Literary and Philosophical Repository" to publish as they think proper. No alteration, of any magnitude, has been effected in these Letters for about two years, nor is he able, at present, to make any. He regrets that they must go, "with all their imperfections on their head," before a tribunal, whose decision is subject to no appeal.

LETTER I.

Maes-Sluis, August 6, 1807.

Passport for Tonningen—Departure from London—Royal Observatory—Greenwich Hospital—Danish Navy—Gravesend—Tavern Expenses—Customhouse Officers—Sail from Gravesend—Thames—Dutchmen's Benediction—Sea-sickness—Descry Land—Arrive at Maes-Sluis.

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MY DEAR FRIEND,

HAVING spent several months in visiting the principal cities, and examining the most interesting curiosities, of England, I began to prepare for a journey to Paris. The greatest embarrassment, that attends travelling in Europe, at present, is the difficulty of obtaining permission to pass between countries, which cherish the bitterest enmity, and are engaged in the fiercest hostilities, against each other. A foreigner, in England, who wishes to visit the French empire, presents himself at the Alien Office, in London, where, unable to procure a passport for France, or Holland, he receives one for Tonningen. But at the moment the passport is given, he has no intention, nor has the British government any expectation, of his sailing for that port. He usually directs his course to this place, or to Rotterdam; presuming, that by making a small *douceur* to the Gallico-Dutch officers, he shall be permitted to land, and pursue his journey.

An embargo, on all foreign vessels, detained me in London a considerable time, after the day proposed for my departure. Feeling a strong inclination to be at Paris, on the fifteenth of August, the anniversary of Napoleon's birth, I made known to our ambassador, Mr. Monroe, my anxiety to quit the country without longer delay. This worthy

man, and highly respected minister, whose civility to me, during my residence in London, I shall ever remember with gratitude, kindly offered to accompany me to the Alien-Office, to request that I might be allowed, immediately, to cross the water, in a small Dutch vessel, then lying at Gravesend. I gladly accepted his Excellency's proposal, and Mr. Reeves, one of the superintendants of the Alien department, very cheerfully granted the request.

I had procured letters of credit from my banker, Mr. W. to his correspondents in Holland and France. An acquaintance with several of the members of the Royal Society, and, particularly, with those, who frequent the library of its illustrious president, Sir Joseph Banks, enabled me, with great facility, to furnish myself with letters of introduction to the principal *savans* of the French Metropolis. The gentleman, however, to whom I am, in this respect, the most indebted, is Sir Charles Blagden, late secretary of the Royal Society; to whose notice and kind attention I had been recommended by Mr. K. our former ambassador at the Court of St. James.

Every necessary arrangement for my tour being completed, on the third instant, I placed myself in the mail-coach for Gravesend; and speedily passed the boundary of London; that miniature of the pomp and bustle; the activity and sloth; the virtue and wickedness of the world;

“Where Wealth still swells the golden tide,

As busy Trade his labour plies;

Where Architecture's noble pride

Bids elegance and splendor rise.”

We proceeded down the river, and soon found ourselves at Greenwich; a small town five miles below London Bridge. Here, on the right of the road to Gravesend, stands the Royal Observatory, situated on the summit of a considera-

ble hill, and near the middle of an extensive park. In a former letter, which, I trust, has already reached you, I have described this building, together with the principal instruments employed in astronomical observation. I also mentioned the obligation I am under to the politeness of Dr. Maskelyne,* the Astronomer Royal; with whom I was made acquainted at a meeting of the Royal Society; and, at whose invitation, I soon after passed a day with him at this delightful abode, devoted to science, friendship, and virtue.

From this elevated spot, you enjoy a most enchanting landscape. As you look toward the north, your attention is first arrested by Greenwich hospital; which consists of four large piles of building; the whole constituting one of the finest specimens of architectural beauty and grandeur, that can be found in Great Britain. Extending your view a little further, you see vessels of all sizes and descriptions; from the richly laden merchantman, and the proud ship of the line, the terror of the ocean, to the tremulous barge and the dirty fish boat, continually moving up and down the Thames. The scene of activity, which you here witness, is indiscribable. Your eye is next attracted up the river by a wilderness of masts, stretching nearly five miles in length. Here, on particular occasions, the flags of different and distant nations are hoisted; and, beautifully waving in the air, present a spectacle not unworthy the pencil of a Trumbull, or a West. There is, at present, but little variety. The vessels are chiefly English. You may, however, distinguish some Danish, Russian, Swedish, and a few American colours. Following this astonishing range of shipping, you are insensibly brought to a distant, indistinct, view of the Metropolis. The lofty dome of St. Paul's cathedral

* Now deceased.

at once catches your eye, and excites your admiration.— Several other large structures are quite visible from the observatory ; while most of the city is perpetually enveloped in a vast cloud of smoke. In nearly every direction, you behold a fertile country, under high cultivation, variegated with hills and vales, parks and fields, the splendid dwelling of the rich, and the neat cottage of the laborious husbandman. By means of a camera obscura, which is situated in one of the turrets of the observatory, all these objects are reduced, and distinctly represented, within a circle of five or six feet diameter.

On the left of the road, directly opposite the observatory, and on a long terrace, built upon the south bank of the Thames, stands Greenwich Hospital, for the accommodation and support of invalid seamen. It had its origin in the royal munificence of William and Mary. It was founded in 1694, and is now considered the noblest establishment, of this kind, that Humanity can boast. The edifices are constructed of Portland stone, and are strikingly magnificent. In the different buildings are exhibited different orders of architecture. The best view of the hospital is from the river.

In a late visit to Greenwich, I made application to one of the keepers, an old disabled officer, to see the interior of the institution. Stimulated with the hope of a little compensation for his trouble, he very cheerfully conducted me to every part of the establishment. Passing through a number of apartments, which are separated into wards, we ascended a flight of steps, and entered a saloon, a hundred and six feet in length, fifty six wide, and fifty in height, adorned with a range of beautiful Corinthian pilasters, and a number of rich paintings. ‘Here,’ said the war-worn veteran, with mingled emotions of pride and indignation,

which alternately glowed on his cheek, 'here lay, during three days, the body of the brave Nelson, and *we* were not depraved enough, thank heaven, to show his lordship *for money*, as was shamelessly done at St. Paul's.' I was delighted at the pathos with which the old man spoke. It was the warmth of a noble spirit, indignant at the commission of an ignoble act.

The truth of his assertion has since been confirmed to me, by the testimony of an eye witness. The body of the gallant admiral was conveyed, with great pomp, from Greenwich Hospital to St. Paul's, where it remained for some days unburied. And while the government were expending vast sums in preparing to give it the most honourable interment—while the whole nation was shrouded in mourning for its fallen defender and hero—and while all the opulent cities of the kingdom were planning monuments to perpetuate his fame and their gratitude—the keepers of the cathedral were unblushingly exhibiting his lordship to the publick, *at a fixed price*! Nelson, who had devoted his life a free-will offering to his country, was not allowed to sink into the grave of glory, and be pressed by the sepulchral column, till he had been made a lucrative spectacle, and shown, like animals in the Tower, to gratify the rapacity of unfeeling avarice.

And here let me ask—Has the petulant Janson, or the demoralizing Moore, or Ashe, or farmer Parkenson, or any of that ignoble phalanx of English travellers, who, in violation of truth, and conscience, and the rights of hospitality, have so liberally heaped abuse on the United States, discovered any thing, in the American character, more disgraceful, or more outraging to humanity, than this conduct of their own countrymen?—conduct of which the savages

themselves would disdain to be guilty.* The proofs, which the English have given of the high regard they feel for their naval Hercules, are laudable and unequivocal—proofs as lasting, at least, as the many monuments they have raised to his memory, if not so durable as Nelson's renown. But why were his remains suffered to be insulted? The disgrace was committed in the face of day, and no attempts were made to prevent it. No punishment was inflicted on those sordid wretches, who offered such palpable indignity to the illustrious dead.

From the saloon we ascended, by another set of stairs, into an apartment, denominated the Upper Hall. Here

* While at Edinburgh I fell, two or three times, in company with Mr. Weld, who, you well know, is one of the most virulent and abusive, tho' one of the least scurrilous, and indecent, of the British travellers in America. I afterwards spent some time with him, at his house, in the Irish capital, where he constantly resides.

His father holds a respectable office in the customhouse in that city; and Mr. W. being in easy circumstances, though not rich, and having no regular profession, or employment, lives as a gentleman of leisure, and occasionally devotes himself to the study of the physical sciences, or general literature, as his taste or inclination directs.

I could not let pass so favourable an opportunity to rally Mr. W. on the manner in which he had spoken of America, and its inhabitants, in his book of travels; and you will judge of the surprise and pleasure I felt, on hearing him frankly acknowledge to me, as, I understand, he has done to many others, that he considered the publication of that work, as one of the "errors of his youth"—that it was written, while he was under the influence of strong prejudices against our country—that it contains several assertions and representations, which his riper years, maturer judgment, and more enlarged information, had led him to see were erroneous and unjust—and which, should he ever publish a new edition of it, as he contemplates, he would certainly correct or entirely expunge.

I feel it a duty to state, that Mr. Weld boldly denied having written the work, as has been generally believed, at the instigation of the British government, in order to prevent emigrations from that country, or that he had ever received any emolument for it from that source.

we saw the portraits of George the First, and his family, thrown into a tolerably well proportioned group. In the four corners of the room are the ancient regalia, consisting of the arms of England, Scotland, France and Ireland. — We next visited the chapel, which is one hundred and eleven feet in length, and fifty two broad. It is furnished with a fine organ, and decorated with a great variety of statues and paintings. The picture, which attracts the most notice, is the production of Mr. West, and one of the best specimens of the superior genius and taste of that celebrated artist. It is fourteen feet wide, and twenty five high, and represents St. Paul's escape from shipwreck on the island of Melita. The Council Chamber, and the School-room, where two hundred boys, the sons of seamen, are gratuitously instructed, are spacious, convenient, and richly ornamented. The Infirmary is capacious enough to contain five hundred and twelve patients. It is separated into two divisions ; one for those, who are under the care of physicians, and the other for such, as require surgical assistance.

The hospital contains two thousand four hundred and forty eight wards. These are kept clean and well aired ; the linen is frequently washed ; the provisions are wholesome and abundant, and the inhabitants, ' marked with many a scar,' are supplied with all the comforts, that honourable wounds, or declining nature, can reasonably demand.

" Here now reclin'd,
From wave and wind,
And Fortune's tempests safe ashore ;
To cheat their care,
Of former war,
They talk their pleasing stories o'er."

The present number of pensioners is two thousand four hundred and ten. The outpensioners amount to three thousand two hundred ; and the entire number of persons,

who are wholly, or in part, supported on this establishment, including officers, servants, nurses and boys, is about six thousand. The annual expenditures of the Institution do not fall much short of £100,000 sterling! Such is the liberality of Great Britain to those, who have bled in her battles, or grown decrepit in her service.

Here the Danish army and navy, under the command of their monarch, Sweyn, formerly stationed themselves, and maintained their ground, during three years, baffling all the efforts of British power. Their abandonment of the country was, at length, purchased at the expense of forty thousand pounds sterling. Hume, the historian, in relating the ravages of the Danes in England, mentions the sums, which the English paid, at different eras, for a temporary freedom from the devastations of these restless visitors.— They consented to quit the country,

In the year 991 for £10,000

In 993 for 16,000

In 997 for 24,000

In 1007 for 30,000

About 1012 for 48,000.

They then subdued the island and held the possession of it many years. The fortunes of those nations are now reversed. Denmark has dwindled to insignificance; while Britain successfully combats the maritime forces of the whole world.

Passing over a small, but beautiful, and very productive part of the island, we arrived at Gravesend, at eight in the evening.

This is a little, irregular, dirty village, situated on the Thames, twenty one miles below London. It is remarkable, chiefly, for the speculation and knavery of its inhabitants. On stepping from the coach, we were surrounded

by a multitude of porters, all eager to catch our baggage and convey it to our chambers. We were next assailed by a number of watermen, each begging us to employ his boat to go on board our vessel. These fellows often get persons into their boats, who are unacquainted with their tricks, and very moderately row, perhaps, to a wrong vessel, or pretend to be driven off by the current, or to meet some other difficulty, to prevent their reaching, within a couple of hours, the place to which they were ordered, and at which they might have arrived, in ten or fifteen minutes. By such means, they contrive to rob the stranger's pocket of, at least, half a guinea. The evil, however, may easily be avoided. A traveller should never engage a boat, without knowing the price he is to give for its use. This precaution would prevent much imposition.

I had heard it remarked, that the accommodations in the Gravesend inns were scarcely tolerable, and that the charges were more unreasonable than those at the publick houses of the metropolis. Experience convinced me, that the remark was correct. I was accompanied by a young man, committed to my care by the American minister, who, in early childhood, had been unfortunately deprived of the powers of hearing and speech, and who is going to seek a substitute for his lost faculties in the celebrated school of the Abbè Secard. For a very indifferent supper, lodging, breakfast, and two days provision at sea, we were presented with the moderate bill of two pounds sterling.

Strangers are liable to imposition from the brokers, of whom they sometimes procure their passage. During the late short interval of war between England and France, the regulated price of a conveyance, from Dover to Calais, was half a guinea ; from Brighton to Dieppe, a guinea and a half ; and from Gravesend to Maes-Sluis, about the same

sum. Indeed, the fixed expense of a conveyance, in the Diligence, from London to Paris, by Dover and Calais, the sea passage included, was only four pounds. But the commencement of hostilities, by destroying freedom of intercourse between the two countries, has greatly augmented the expense of travelling. The Dutch brokers, at the Royal Exchange in London, frequently demand ten or fifteen, and sometimes, twenty or thirty guineas, for a conveyance to Holland. They often accept a much smaller sum. We paid only four guineas each.

At twelve o'clock, the captain informed us, in his Anglo-Dutch dialect, that he was ready for sea. The boatmen were waiting for us at the door. We employed one, who, for transporting four persons, and a few trunks, about an hundred rods, charged us fifteen shillings. A customhouse officer now made his appearance, but did not long detain us. A guinea, seasonably slipped into his hand, by one of the passengers, prevented our trunks being deranged, and produced in him a full conviction, that we had no articles subject to duty.

In this way the English treasury is annually defrauded of a large revenue. The evil springs from the parsimony of the government to its custom-levying servants. Necessity, it is alledged, compels them to be dishonest. If this be correct, the conduct of the government is certainly very *impolitick*, for I have never known a subaltern officer of the customs in England, who would not cheat the revenue twenty shillings for the sake of pocketing one himself. Were the salaries increased to the amount of half the money, which would arise from the collection of the legal tax on articles, which are now suffered to pass unexamined, the crime both of giving and receiving a *bribe* might perhaps be prevented.

Our vessel, like all others of Dutch construction, was clumsy and incommodious. It had two small cabins. My young companion and myself were obliged to accept the least ; the other being occupied by earlier applicants.— While we were endeavouring to improve our comfortless apartment, the sails were unfurled, and the united force of the wind and current carried us rapidly down the Thames. This is a noble stream, and the medium of a large proportion of the wealth of the British capital, to which it admits vessels of almost any burden. Its width is greatly enlarged before it enters the German sea. We anchored at its mouth, just as the sun sunk below the horizon. Here, it is a majestick object. From our station the eye could little more than reach the land on either side. It was half covered with vessels ; some loaded with the supports of life, and others filled with implements of death.

The evening was cold and rainy. The sailors resorted to our cabin ; kindled a fire, and prepared their supper. It was a dirty meal, dirtily served up. They cut their bread, and, after spreading over it a liberal coating of butter, laid it on the floor, where it absorbed a large quantity of marine moisture, while the tea, which was boiling over the fire, in an open kettle, underwent a thorough deccction. Before, and after, eating, each person put his hat to his face, and seemed, for a moment, to be in profound meditation. This, I supposed, constituted their benediction and thanksgiving.

The unsavoury odour of the vessel, the heat of a large fire, and the sight of this filthy, but voraciously devoured, supper, brought, prematurely, on me, and my little companion, the natural effects of the salt water. We felt the full operation of sea-sickness, a malady, which, by the indescribable languor it produces, almost destroys the love of

life, and renders you nearly indifferent, whether you remain on board; or are tumbled headlong into the deep.

Without, were darkness; wind, swollen waves, and a torrent of rain; within, eating, drinking, vomiting, a vile odour from the pipes of the Dutch crew, and, to crown all, an army of the light-footed, blood-sucking tribe. But the dreary night, at length, passed away, and was succeeded by a delightful morning.

"All the following day
the swelling sails,

Full from the guiding pilot catch'd the gales,"
and this morning, at an early hour, we entered the broad channel of the Meuse. Here our progress was slow, and wearisome. An armed vessel was stationed at the mouth of the river; on board which our captain was ordered to carry his papers to undergo the customary examination. He returned, in a few minutes, and had scarcely advanced half a mile farther, when he was hailed by another man of war, to which he was obliged to submit his papers for a second inspection. In our next remove we reached this place, Maes-Sluys; where are anchored two more armed ships, for the examination of all vessels passing up, or down, the river.

We now came under military government. A soldier was dispatched from the village to guard us, while the captain went to the office of the military commandant to enquire, if we, aliens, might be allowed to place our feet on the territory of his majesty king Louis. He returned with a favourable answer, and we cheerfully quitted our unpleasant habitation, and repaired to the village hotel.

I have been minute, in relating the difficulties we had to surmount before we could land, in order to show you how many barriers Napoleon has erected to stop all communi-

cation with the hated English. But notwithstanding these, the Dutch, who detest his commerce-destroying system, still carry on an intercourse with the islanders for the disposal of their superfluous commodities. The civil and military officers, who are mostly French, for their connivance at this forbidden intercourse, share largely with the merchant in the profits of his commerce. It is here said, that not a week has passed, since the commencement of the present war, in which there have not some Dutch vessels sailed from Holland to England. This is a strong proof of the difficulty, if not impossibility, of producing a complete non-intercourse between commercial countries.

I have employed most of the afternoon and evening, in preparing this long letter, to which I intend to add another tomorrow, and send them to England, whence they will be forwarded to America by the earliest conveyance. Enter-tain no apprehension for my safety. I was never more *se-cure*—a guard is posted at the door to prevent our es-cape.

—o:o:o:o:o—

LETTER II.

Maes-Sluys, 7 August, 1807.

Passports sent to the Hague—Dykes, natural and artificial—
Maes-Sluys, a fishing town—Its neatness—Musicoes, established
by government—Dress of the Dutch females—Knavery detected.

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It was an object of immediate importance to ascertain whether we should be permitted to prosecute our journey to Paris, or be compelled, as many had been, to re-embark for England. On enquiry, the military commandant in-

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formed us, that our passports would be transmitted, by mail, to the Hague, the royal residence, examined, approved, or disapproved, and returned by the same conveyance. 'You can, however,' said he, 'expedite the business, by dispatching an express to his majesty, if you choose to be at the expense.' To this we readily consented, and he promised, that our papers should be returned in twenty-four hours.

One circumstance I forgot to notice in my letter of yesterday. It was the surprise I felt, when approaching the shores of Holland, in being unable to discover any object, except the mounds of sand, which form the margin of the ocean. The interior lands were totally invisible. In fact, the whole country appears to have been, at some remote period, filched from the domains of Neptune. A large portion of it is actually several feet lower than the surface of the sea. It is preserved from inundation by dykes, or mounds of earth, to keep which in repair, we are told, 'costs the nation more than to support an army of forty thousand men.' The dykes, on the borders of the sea, are chiefly natural, and produced by continual contributions of sand from the waves; but those, which confine the waters of the rivers, within their proper limits, are almost entirely artificial. Every stream, of any considerable magnitude, is embanked on both sides, through its whole extent; and in uncommonly rainy seasons, it requires infinite care to keep the liquid element under proper control. Instances are on record, and even within the recollection of many a Dutchman, in which the waters have forced a weak point in the dykes, and, in a few moments, overspread a tract of country some miles in diameter, carrying with them terror and devastation.

After the courier had departed, with our papers, we obtained liberty to sally out for a walk. In an hour, we cir-

cumambulated, and perambulated, the whole village of Maes-Sluis. It is inhabited mostly by fishermen, but is unlike the places in New-England, whose inhabitants are devoted to the same occupation. There, you know, a *fish-ing town*, and a *filthy one* are almost synonymous expressions. It is not so in Holland. The Dutch, (our vessel's crew excepted!) are remarkably neat. The streets, here, are narrow and paved with brick, except in the middle, a space about eight feet in width, which is of stone, and intended for carriages to run upon. These, the women, who are continually washing and sweeping them, keep as clean as the interior of their houses.

In our pedestrian party, was a Dutch merchant, who fled from his country, when it became the prey of revolutionary misrule, established himself in London, and was a passenger with us from Gravesend. He was well educated, had held a high office under the ancient government, was an agreeable companion, and afforded us much interesting information, concerning the customs and morals of his countrymen.

In our excursion, we passed a house, partly open, where we heard music, and dancing, and saw a number of females seated around a table, supping on pancakes, which were fried by some old women, stationed on the sides of the street, each furnished with a pot of coals, a pan, and materials for making the cakes. This, our Dutch companion informed us, was a place to which the lower orders of men, and, particularly, soldiers and sailors, resorted for sensual gratification; that similar houses had been established all over Holland, in the time of the republic, or earlier, and were denominated *musicoes*. I inquired what strange policy could induce the government to legalize a practice, prohibited by the voice of Deity himself, and acknowledged to be

hostile to the increase of population ; a practise, which is anathematized by all the friends of virtue, and religion, and which, generally, draws down a multitude of curses on the heads of those, who indulge in it ? He prefaced his answer with " Holland was once free ! " ' She needed an immense number of men, in her army, and navy, which then shared largely in the empire of the ocean. The labours of her soldiers were so liberally rewarded, that they soon became independent, were enabled to retire from publick service, and procure a permanent settlement in the bosom of their country. The Dutch laurels began to wither. The army was diminished and the ships deserted. And how should the deficiency be supplied ?—Not by the cruel conscription of the French, which, in any country, less exhausted and sickened, with anarchy and blood-shed, would kindle up all the horrors of intestine war.—Not by the terrifying press-gang of the English, which unfeelingly snatches men from their homes, and all that is dear to them, and, sometimes, compels them to abandon their families and dependants to despair and misery.—The government chose to effect its purpose by the milder, but wicked method of encouraging men to expend their money in purchasing the indulgence of their passions. By this temptation, thousands were ensnared. Their money slipped, unawares, away, and necessity soon drove them back, paupers, to the service which they had quitted, rich as petty nabobs.'

Drawing near the door we discovered other females, linked arm in arm, with their gallants, dancing, or rather, jumping about in a long apartment, and displaying all movements—but graceful ones. The house is open for visitors every hour in the twenty-four. Strangers, and others, who wish to be spectators of the scene—to lend their ears to the tiresome sea-sawing of unskilful musicians, to see the perfection

of awkwardness in dancing, and to witness the fumblings and caresses of vulgar love, usually assemble between eight and ten, in the evening. They pay for admittance as at a theatre. Dutch gentlemen frequently bring their wives and daughters to spend an hour here, *as a preservative of their chastity!* They believe

‘Vice is a monster of such frightful mien,

That to be *bated* needs but to be *seen*.

Whether this principle be capable of unlimited application, or not, those must determine, who are best acquainted with the mazy windings of the human heart, and the excitability of the unhallowed passions.—But who, except the cold blooded Batavians, could ever be induced to think, that presenting before the eyes of a young girl, of vivid imagination, a scene of kissing, dancing, drinking, embracing, the lascivious lear, and all the sports of unrestrained wantonness, would have a tendency to preserve her purity? Who else would not judge it a thousand times more likely to produce an opposite effect—to awaken the spark of salacious desire, which was before sleeping undisturbed in the bosom of innocence? It is, at least, a dangerous experiment, and one, which I am told, has cost many husbands and parents tears of repentance.

In the musico, which we saw, were about thirty females, most of whom have not liberty to go beyond the precincts of the building. Being deeply in debt to the keepers, who charge double, or triple, the value of every article they furnish them, their brothel has literally become their prison, where they will probably be confined till death releases them. But their days will be, emphatically, ‘few and evil.’

‘Death treads in pleasure’s footsteps round the world,
When pleasure treads the paths, which reason shuns.’

A large proportion of the women in the musicoes have been the victims of disappointment and misfortune. Many of them were lately members of good families, and sustained reputable characters, but having once ventured to cross the boundary, which nature has placed between virtue and vice, they found their return no less difficult than Eneas' ascent from Avernus. Deserted by their connections, and thrown friendless on an unpitying world, poverty has driven them here to wear out the remnants of polluted life in these sinks of harlotry.

These houses are very numerous. The government receive a considerable revenue for the protection it affords them. For the safety of visitors, and the country, they are occasionally inspected by surgeons and officers of the police.

An American, on landing here, is obliged to put a painful restraint on his risible muscles, or he will often burst into a loud laugh at the odd *costumes* of the Dutch females. They wear straw hats, with a small crown, but with a brim nearly as large as a common umbrella. This falls over the shoulders and face, hiding them from the direct rays of the sun, and from the spectator's gaze. Their complexions, in consequence of their continual seclusion from the light, are pallid and colourless.

Their shoes are made of soft wood, a single piece, so embowelled, as to create space for the foot, and a sufficiency of old stockings, or woolen cloths, to keep it warm. Twenty women, thus shod, walking on the pavements, make no small clattering. Their gowns are long waisted, and similar to those, which adorned the American fair about the middle of the last century.

CONTINUATION.

August 8, 1807.

This afternoon our passports are returned, with intelli-

gence that we have liberty to travel through his majesty's dominions to France.—Mere accident has this moment discovered to us, that the whole affair of transmitting our papers to the Hague is but a vile artifice. They have not been out of the hotel. The trick was contrived by the military commander and the inn-keeper. The former is paid for an express to the seat of government, and for the guard, who *protects* us, and the latter has an opportunity, by our delay, to increase his tavern bill. At this act of villany we are burning with indignation, but dare not give it vent. We have already learned, that silence and submission, in such a country as this, are to be ranked among the highest virtues a traveller can possess. Were our present feelings to break out in irritating language, we should probably be compelled to resign our apartments, to look through the grates of a Dutch prison. The poets advice was never more applicable.

‘Premeditate your speeches, words once flown,
Are in your *bearers* power, not your own.’

Had not our landlord been largely stocked with ‘the root of all evil,’ we should not have been presented with so extravagant a bill. For two of us, he charged fourteen guilders, and nine stivers a day, or about five dollars and eighty cents. Our carriage will be at the door in a few moments. We hope to sleep this night at Rotterdam.

—0:0:0:00:0—

LETTER III.

Rotterdam, Sunday Evening, 9 August, 1807.

Dutch carriage—Characteristic difference between the Hollanders and the inhabitants of New-England—Canals—Neatness

of Dutch villages—Passports—The Dutch still respect the Sabbath—Mr. Crawford—Commerce of Holland nearly destroyed—Character of king Louis—Erasmus.

.....

I HAD scarcely completed my last, when our carriage came rattling to the Hotel. It was a clumsy, uncouth vehicle, drawn by two horses, fastened to it by ropes, and was calculated for only two passengers. The body of the carriage, at the bottom, where it rested on the axletree, was about two feet wide. Its width increased from the bottom upward in the manner of a boat. How, thought I, as we entered, can this odd machine be directed?—for it had no pole, or shaft. The problem was soon solved. The driver, seating himself on the outside, placed his back to the front of the carriage, and very deliberately planted his feet against the posteriors of the two horses. Had there been hills to descend, he would have had nothing to do, but press with his feet and draw upon the reins. The probability of the carriage running upon the horses would have been, indirectly, as the strength of the driver's legs. Fortunately for us, as well as for the horses, the road is extremely level. It is formed on a mound of earth about twenty feet in width, artificially elevated six, or seven feet, above the surface of the adjacent land. For many miles we seemed to be travelling on a continued rampart. The country is finely cultivated, and very productive. The wheat fields are now white for the harvest, and some of them have already rewarded, with their full sheaves, the husbandman's toil.—The pastures are thickly spotted with sheep and black cattle.

I must not omit to mention a characteristic difference in the aspect of New-England and Holland. In the former, the houses are scattered through the whole country. But here, and, I believe, in most parts of the old world, you of-

ten travel three, or four, miles without passing a single habitation. You are then ushered into a large village, or, perhaps, a walled town, crowded with people, and filled with the buzz of commerce, and the louder noise of bustling opulence. This mode of settling was undoubtedly suggested by the necessity of union for self-defence. And, indeed, such combinations of force must have been of incalculable importance in "elder time," when the European countries were continually exposed to the incursions of foreign plunderers, and to the depredations of domestick banditti. In cases of danger, all the moveable property in the environs of a fortified city, or town, was deposited within its walls, and the inhabitants, defending their lives, families, and all they possessed, made a desperate resistance to an attacking foe.

Another circumstance is worthy of notice. The people of New-England generally build their houses, and even country seats, near some publick road. But in England, and here, country houses are situated at a considerable distance from the highway, and, usually, in the midst of a park; so that the traveller in passing them, can only get a glance at the buildings, through the openings of a surrounding wood.

The canals are almost the only objects, that give variety to this sunken, champaign region. Boats are continually passing, and re-passing, you in every direction. The horse, that draws the boat, slow, and plodding, as his master, trudges along the side of the canal at the rate of *precisely* three miles an hour.

We rode through several villages, all marked by the same neatness and industry, which we had witnessed at Maes-Sluis. The streets are narrow, and all the buildings are of brick. At eight in the evening we found ourselves jolting on the pavements of Rotterdam. The road, to a

great distance from the city, is lined with rows of trees, trimmed in the French style, with the tops cut flat, and the limbs all of equal height. Their appearance is beautiful, though, to an eye, that admires nature in her wild and rugged form, they would seem too much cramped by the hand of art.

It is indispensable, that every American, who wishes to enter the French empire, have a passport, or a certificate of his citizenship, from an American ambassador, or consul, or from the secretary of state. This must be presented to the French consul at Rotterdam, and, if approved by him, will enable the bearer to obtain, at Antwerp, a passport for the interior. Wishing to continue my journey by the first conveyance, I felt no inconsiderable anxiety to have my passport examined on the night of my arrival. Not a moment was lost. I hastened from the carriage to the American consul's office. He was gone to America, and his deputy, Mr. Curtis, was out of town. It was Saturday. I could probably have an interview with Mr. C. on Sunday evening, but could gain no access to the French consul till late on Monday. Finding that nothing could, immediately, be accomplished to hasten our departure from Rotterdam, I endeavoured to put on a little of the stoick, a character, which never suited me, returned fatigued to my lodgings at the *Hotel du Marechal de Turenne*, retired early to bed, and slept soundly till nine in the morning.

CONTINUATION.

10 August.

The Dutch still observe the Sabbath. They would not, I believe, easily be persuaded to imitate their Gallic neighbours in voting it from the calendar. Though their minds

are, in some measure, tainted with the infidelity; and their morals corrupted by the licentious practices, of the French, by whom they are strictly watched and governed, still an external reverence is given to the ordinances of the sanctuary. Many attend divine worship, and, during its performance, but little rattling of carriages, or other improper noise, is heard in the streets.

The churches of this city are numerous, and, among them, is one English, and one Scotch. I found my way to the latter, and after service, went with Mr. Curtis, (who had returned from the country, and called to see me,) to spend a part of the evening at Mr. Crawford's, a wealthy English gentleman, who has long resided in Rotterdam. His house, a little removed from the noise of the town, is delightfully situated on the bank of the Meuse, where it commands an extensive view of a finely cultivated, and productive country. Mr. C. is a gentleman of great hospitality and politeness, and entertains his visitors in a princely style. I had been with him but a short time, when he made himself known to me as an author. Finance is his hobby-horse. He presented me with a volume he had written on this subject; a work, which, he imagines, entitles him to a high rank among modern writers on political economy. His best friends, however, are not of the same opinion.

In the evening, Mr. C. the deputy consul, knowing our desire to quit Holland immediately, made out our certificates of citizenship, and advised us to proceed to Antwerp, without waiting to obtain the signature of the French consul, which he presumed would be of very little importance. As this project favoured our wishes, we adopted it, but not without strong apprehensions that all was not right.

The commerce of this industrious people is nearly ruined. Hundreds of vessels of all descriptions lie unemployed

and rotting—a melancholy spectacle to a money-making Dutchman. And, indeed, no person of any sensibility can view Holland in her present degraded condition without emotions of pity.

This remark on the commerce of Holland will lead you to ask—How do the Dutch like their Corsican king? It is a question, which I this morning put to Mr. M. an intelligent merchant of this city. “His Majesty,” replied he, “is as acceptable as any monarch could be, who was entirely under the control of the French emperor. He is a well-disposed, pacifick sovereign; seems attached to his subjects, and has sometimes indulged them so far in a clandestine traffick with Great Britain, as to excite the anger and resentment of his imperial brother. But, continued Mr. M. should the strong arm of Napoleon be broken, and should Holland be freed from all fear of Gallic domination, the sceptre would soon be snatched from king Lewis’ hand, and his majesty be compelled to exchange the splendour of royalty for banishment, a dungeon, or the guillotine.”*

The water of this city is of a very laxative nature. Its effects on foreigners are often extremely powerful.

The spot where I am writing is only a few rods from the birth place of the celebrated Erasmus. This literary prodigy, the boast and blessing of the fifteenth century, rose:

* This puppet king has since been driven from the Belgian throne, and his dominions annexed to France. Thus the once opulent and happy republic of Holland, after being lacerated by the scourge of intestine dissension; after basely courting and receiving the fraternal embrace of French republicanism; after maintaining, for four years, the splendour of mock royalty; after being harrassed and oppressed by imperial edicts, executed by the unfeeling and unprincipled satellites of Napoleon; in fine, after losing its commerce, its wealth, its honour, its national spirit—has become a poor, distressed, insignificant appendage of the *grand empire*.—Such are the blessings of French protection and friendship!

from obscurity, and, surmounting all the difficulties, which orphanage, ignorance, and prejudice could throw in his way, attained a proud and almost unequalled eminence in the republic of letters. Few men contributed more than Erasmus to the revival of learning in Europe. He travelled in Holland, France, Italy, and England; and, wherever he went, roused up the sleeping energies of genius, and enkindled an ardour for literary improvement and fame, which is not yet extinguished. Having censured the abuses of the Catholics, and being unfriendly to the dissenters, he was attacked, hated, and feared, by both parties. But after death had removed the dread of his talents, his memory became universally respected. A bronze statue was erected to him in this city, on the pedestal of which was placed an inscription in Dutch, which a late traveller has thus translated into his native language:

“ERASMUS,

The glorious Sun of human knowledge,

That master of Eloquence,

Moralist,

And wonder of the World,

Rose here, and set at Basil :

May that imperial City honour him in the grave !

No decoration of sculptured ornament,

No sumptuous tomb,

Nor costly statue,

Can add fame or honour to a Genius,

For whom only

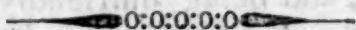
The vaulted roof of High Heaven

Forms the proper

Temple.”

One of the public squares of this town still bears his name.

We shall, in a few moments, be seated in the Diligence, which is a kind of overgrown baggage-waggon. Nothing could induce me to pass so hastily through this delightful country, did I not cherish the hope of spending several weeks here, when on my return to England. I shall then visit all those cities, which are so often mentioned in the annals of literature and the sciences.



REVIEW.

Miscellaneous works, by ELIPHALET NOTT, D. D. President of Union College. Schenectady: Wm. J. M'Cartee. 1810. 8vo. pp. 240.

IN conformity with the intimation, which we have given, we proceed to lay before our readers our remarks on the Valedictory Addresses of Dr. Nott, contained in the volume, which we have had under review. On the examination of these we enter with undissembled reluctance. We here discover frequent occasion for censure, and we do not meet with those calls for praise, which we should gladly welcome. The addresses are not written with that simple and manly dignity, with that sober and solemn energy, which, considering Dr. Nott's character and situation, might have been anticipated. They are far too declamatory.— They are dressed out with a profusion of embellishment; and the ornaments, with which they are decorated, are by no means uniformly chaste, appropriate, and graceful.

The lessons of instruction, and counsel, and warning too, which are furnished, are not such, as parental solicitude

would have prompted a wise and pious father, and his place Dr. Nott assumes, to impart to sons, leaving him to enter on the perilous journey of life. Much valuable advice is, indeed, afforded, and many salutary cautions are given. But much, which ought to have been brought forward, is omitted, and many particulars have found a place in these addresses, which are ill-timed, or incorrect.

On the last of those topics, which Dr. Nott introduces in his first address, "cherish and practice religion," he dwells at considerable length. The others he dismisses with a few, brief remarks. It was certainly well, that to the most important subject the largest share of his attention should be paid, and that on it, his main strength should be exerted. But the efforts, which he makes in behalf of the religious interests of his pupils, we venture to pronounce of little value. It is against infidelity only, that he directs his animadversions. This is the only enemy, which he seems to fear.

To produce an unshaken adherence to christianity, he exhibits a portrait of the gospel, and contrasts it with the defectiveness and uncertainty, which attend the speculations of philosophy, and the darkness and gloom, with which they are surrounded. "At this affecting crisis, my beloved pupils, this Gospel," he adds, "I deliver you. It is the most invaluable gift; and I solemnly adjure you to preserve it inviolate forever." But was infidelity the only source of danger, to which the pupils of Dr. Nott were exposed? Might they not hold inviolably fast that gospel, which he delivered them, and yet it prove only the means of loading them deeper with guilt, and sinking them lower in wretchedness? Is there not, in his view, such a thing as nominal christianity; such a thing as entertaining an unwavering belief of revelation, and still that belief possessing no salutary

influence on the heart, and leaving the soul utterly destitute of an interest in the blessings of the gospel? Dr. Nott ought, then, to have unfolded clearly, though we allow, that it must have been done with brevity, the method of salvation announced in scripture, and to have exhibited the characteristick features of vital religion. He ought to have pointed his pupils to their character, as portrayed by the pencil of inspiration, *by nature children of wrath*, and to that new creation by divine grace, without which there can be no well grounded hope, and no salvation. He ought to have placed before them their pollution and guilt, and to have directed their eyes to the cross of Christ and to that blood, which *cleanseth from all sin*. He ought to have pressed upon them the necessity, solemn and imperious, as the eternal consequences at stake, of possessing the christian temper, and of acting in obedience to its impulse. His parting counsel should thus have been such, as would, if followed, have ensured a blissful meeting, when he and they shall be gathered in judgment before the throne of God. Such counsel he has not given. The gospel they may never "cast away," and still their souls be lost.

No opportunity can be imagined, more favourable, than that, which Dr. Nott enjoyed, for fastening durable and salutary convictions on the mind. The lessons of truth and duty, which he might then have given, would have possessed peculiar weight and sunk deep. They were his parting instructions and advice, given at the moment of a solemn and affecting separation—given, when bidding the youth, before him, farewell, probably forever. They were like the last counsels of a dying father, and, one would think, must have come to the soul with a melting and resistless influence.

This opportunity, so auspicious, Dr. Nott suffered to go by.

He did more. By the course, which he pursued, he gave occasion for a ruinous mistake. He furnished his pupils ground for the inference, and it would not be a very remote one, that infidelity was the only error to be avoided; that this was the only source of mischief, against which they should be on their guard; that, if not infidels, it was enough, and their salvation sure. Nothing, we know, was farther from his heart, than lending countenance to so false and dangerous a conclusion. But in combatting infidelity only, and in employing all his efforts to secure the adherence of his pupils to nominal christianity, he has laid a foundation for a delusion, so fatal. Infidelity, and it might be well if Dr. Nott and others were more fully aware of it, infidelity is not the great adversary, whom ministers have to encounter. While one individual perishes by the poison of infidelity, hundreds are undone by neglecting to embrace that religion, the truth of which they never pretend to question. High-wrought invective against infidelity, and warm panegyrick on the gospel, are usually, so far as the moral and religious interests of mankind are concerned, well-nigh nugatory. They may be admired, but they are commonly without effect.

In his positions Dr. Nott is not uniformly correct. His descriptions are overdone. His phraseology is, in many respects, reprehensible.

Of the propensity of mankind to religion, he speaks in terms, in our view, far beyond the truth. Such, we allow, is the nature of man, that he is prepared to receive religious impressions, and to feel the strength of religious obligation. But farther than this, we cannot go. We believe, that, unless preserved by instruction, all religious principles and observances would vanish from the world. We also firmly believe, that, unless implanted there by the fin-

ger of God, true religion will not, in one solitary case, exist in the human heart.

Of the return of the French from "the dismal waste" and "the cheerless darkness" of scepticism, Dr. Nott gives the following description.

"They retraced in sadness and sorrow the paths which they had trodden. They consecrated again the temples they had defiled; they sighed again for the return of that religion they had banished, and spontaneously promised submission to its reign." p. 190.

Whether this representation be fiction, or whether it be fact, we leave our readers to judge from the testimony of Mr. Walsh, or any other intelligent traveller.

"The question is not, then," Dr. Nott informs his pupils, "whether you will embrace religion. Religion you must embrace—but whether you will embrace revealed religion, or that of erring and blind philosophy." p. 191.

The religion "of erring and blind philosophy," the religion of Voltaire, Hume, Gibbon, &c. we have been accustomed to suppose nothing more or less, than absolutely no religion at all.

The portrait of the liar, which Dr. Nott exhibits, possesses prominence of feature and strength of colouring; but it cannot boast great exactness of delineation, or delicacy of shade.

"His soul," the liar's, "is already repulsed to a returnless distance from that Divinity, a sense of whose presence is the security of virtue," p. 188.

"Returnless" is a term, the use of which we believe unauthorized. We suspect, that it is an intruder into the language. Dr. Nott's idea is no less extraordinary. The liar's soul is repulsed, that is, driven back. It must, of course, have advanced, we know not how far, towards that Divinity, from which it is driven back. It is "*already re-*

pulsed." The repulsive power, which has acted upon it, may not, it therefore appears, have spent its force. It is already, however, repulsed to a "returnless distance." The liar's doom is, then, if we rightly understand Dr. Nott's word returnless, irreversibly established. He has the seal of reprobation impressed upon his character. For him there is no recovery and no hope. This, we must own, is to us entirely new. We have always ventured to indulge the persuasion, that liars, as well as other classes of offenders, may repent and return to God, and that to them, instruction and warning and exhortation may with propriety be addressed.

"Religion is a first principle of man. It shoots up from the very seat of life, it cleaves to the constitution by a thousand ligaments, it entwines round human nature and sends to the very bottom of the heart its penetrating tendrils." p. 189.

"Tendril. The clasp of a vine or other climbing plant."
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"Her energizing voice echoes along the cold, damp vaults of death, renovating skin, and bones, and dust, and putrefaction." p. 194.

We cannot but feel surprize at it, though we shall not stop to insist on the disgusting and almost ludicrous particularity, to which, in this sentence, Dr. Nott descends.

When a minister of the gospel, placed at the head of a respectable seminary, delivers an address, like that before us, to pupils of whom he is taking his final leave, he commits an offence against literature and religion, which deserves pointed reprehension. It is, however, but justice

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to Dr. Nott to say, that we esteem this, in point of literary merit, plainly inferior to the subsequent addresses in the volume.

In his second address, on a brief examination of which we now enter, Dr. Nott undertakes to answer the inquiry; What manner of life will conduct to happiness? In doing it, he contemplates man in a threefold light. "Man," he says, "is a being, in whom are mysteriously combined a sensible, an intellectual, and a moral nature." He considers the means of happiness, which, adapted to each of our capacities of enjoyment, are placed within our reach.

In his remarks with regard to the pleasures of sense, he has gone to a very unwarrantable length. His language is far too strong, and the whole tendency of his observations, in spite of all his cautions, we believe to be noxious. Instead of adding to those barriers, which resist indulgences, that often sweep away in their course respectability, usefulness and happiness, and cause multitudes to become worthless and wretched in themselves, and lost to their friends and the world, he has lent his efforts to weaken and remove them. There could have been no occasion, we imagine, for an encomium on the pleasures of sense, or even for a justification of them; much less could there have been a call for all the warmth and vehemence which Dr. Nott manifests. "I know that there are men, and good men too, who calumniate indiscriminately all the pleasures of sense. I say calumniate; for the language, which they utter, is neither the language of reason nor revelation." p. 202. "Some, indeed, speak of all the pleasures of sense as pleasures of sin. But such language is at once an outrage to common sense and an indignity to God." p. 209.

Against whom, Dr. Nott meant here to direct his censure, we know not. To whom it is applicable, we

know not. We can imagine no individuals, to whom his pupils would apply it, except those preachers, who, as is their solemn and bounden duty, faithfully warn their hearers against the indulgence of those appetites, *which war against the soul*. Their natural inference must have been, that such men and Dr. Nott were at variance, and that he fixed the limits of innocent gratification far beyond where they thought it necessary to establish them. They must have been prompted, therefore, if his remarks had any influence, to disregard the admonitions, which they might receive from the pulpit, and to extend to a highly culpable length, the bounds of what they deemed lawful indulgence. Had Dr. Nott been addressing a body of men like Peter the hermit; had he had before him a collection of monks and ascetics, of mysticks and recluses; or had he been called to draw off from their error those, who extolled penance and mortification; who assigned to them superlative worth; who erected upon them a towering, but tottering fabric of merit; and who rested on them presumptuous and airy hopes; such language as he has employed, might have been proper. But before such an audience as he addressed—before young men, whose passions are ardent, whose principles frequently are not settled, and whose discretion and vigilance are not always awake, who are, therefore, peculiarly liable to be hurried away by the headlong impulse of appetite, to be plunged in excess and vice, and involved in ruin, and who stand in need, in urgent and pitiable need, of restraint, not of incitement, of caution, not of encouragement, the strain of his remarks is utterly indefensible.

In his observations on the “intellectual nature” of man, Dr. Nott affords specimens of the artifice, which he sometimes displays, of the incorrect and hyperbolical expressions, which he occasionally adopts, and of the loose ideas,

which he not unfrequently advances. Of the pleasures of the intellect he says, "The more of these delicate, these pure, these sublime, *I had almost said holy*, pleasures an individual enjoys, the more he is capable of enjoying and the more he is solicitous to enjoy." p. 204. There is here an affectation, too palpable not to be discerned, of being overpowered, and carried away, by the impetuous feeling of the moment. Some apology was, however, due for introducing the word, *holy*, in the connexion, in which it is employed; and we know not that Dr. Nott could fix upon a better, than to seem, in doing it, to be hardly himself. He tells us of "a depravity of *taste*, which merits *eternal* reprobation." "All the region of nature," he says, "earth with its varieties, heaven with its sublimities, the *entire universe*—all that Omnipotence has done is *spread out* before the *intellectual observer*. He speaks of a field, whose *distant* boundary *departs* from the beholder, whose *nearest* border, after the advances of *six thousand years*, has been but partially explored." p. 205.

Extravagance and inconsistency are here, at once, so apparent and striking, that we shall not trouble our readers with a single remark, to exhibit them in a more glaring light.

In his remarks on the moral nature of man, Dr. Nott insists on the existence of an innate bias towards religion in the human mind. We have already noticed this subject; but it seems to us to claim some further attention.

"When the child," he says, "first begins to look abroad into the works of the Creator, he naturally refers the objects, that surround him, to an adequate first cause, and asks, Where is God, their Maker? If sudden danger threatens him his eye is directed to the heavens for relief. If unexpected happiness overtakes him, his heart breaks forth in grateful acknowledgments to an unseen benefactor." p. 206.

Here is certainly a bright and attractive portrait. But of whom is it a likeness? Of no one of the fallen and depraved descendants of Adam. Neither scripture nor observation, attests the faithfulness of Dr. Nott's delineation of the human character in childhood. "The imagination of man's heart," God testifies, "is evil from his youth." "The wicked," says the voice of inspiration, "are estranged from the womb; they go astray, as soon as they be born, speaking lies."* Are these the same beings, who, according to Dr. Nott, so early seek God, whose eye, with a sense of dependance, is, in danger, raised to him for protection, and whose heart, when in happiness, runs over with gratitude, and whose voice breaks forth in praise, to an unseen benefactor? Wilder fiction the authors of romance never dealt in. For our own part, we are firmly persuaded, that, without instruction, no child would ever arrive at the knowledge of the divine existence, clearly as he might see that great truth, when once taught it, legible in every part of the works of God. We are, also, fully convinced, that a child, informed of the divine existence, and then left to himself, in spite of "the moral sense," in spite of "the law of his nature," would live as regardless of God, as the brutes, that graze the earth. We can remember something of our own childhood. We can recollect a little concerning our early companions. We have not, in subsequent life, been altogether inattentive to the features of the human character in its early years. From what we can call to mind concerning ourselves and the partners of our boyish days, and from what we have witnessed at a more advanced period, we feel ourselves compelled to declare, that, if Dr. Nott's experience has led him to entertain the opinion, which he

* Gen. viii. 21.—Ps. lxxiii. 3.

expresses, if he does not describe from fancy, instead of fact, his observation has lain among a very different race of beings from that, with which we have been conversant. If all, which Dr. Nott meant to assert by his encomium on the child, and by his eulogy on the savage, which follows, is, that man is endowed with capacities, which qualify him to become a votary of religion, he has accomplished his purpose very awkwardly. He has given occasion for discarding the belief of the deplorable alienation by nature of every child of Adam from God; a belief, without which, the views of the human character, given in the scriptures, are the rankest delusion, and prominent doctrines of the gospel bear the brand of error and folly.

Dr. Nott concludes his remarks on the "moral nature" of man, without alluding to christianity, or adducing the authority of revelation. He thinks, that "The great principles of morality and piety are involved in the argument, he had been pursuing." To this opinion we cannot yield our assent. Those principles are neither so clearly, nor so forcibly involved, as to be attended with a valuable influence.

To us it appears, that to analyze the human constitution, and on our views of human nature to rest the foundation of human duty, must be little better than nugatory. It may amuse, it may create admiration. But we much doubt whether its effects will be higher and more salutary.

"Thus saith the Lord" will come, with beyond comparison, more energy to the conscience and the heart, than all the subtle reasoning, and splendid declamation on the beauty of virtue, the moral sense and the fitness of things, from Plato down to Dr. Nott.

Having detained his pupils so long on the means of happiness, that he has not leisure to enter in detail on the conduct of life, he dismisses them "with an incidental thought

or two, suggested by the times." His incidental thoughts Dr. Nott closes with the following paragraph :

"I cannot sum up all that I would wish to say to you, better, than by placing the entire character of Jesus Christ before you as a perfect model, in the imitation of which will alike consist your happiness and glory. On every important question, in every trying situation, ask what would have been his opinion, what his conduct ; and let the answer regulate your own." p. 214.

Dr. Nott has here ventured on suspicious ground. He has been guilty of a capital omission. He has said nothing of our Saviour's character, which the most rancorous foes of his Godhead, and the most contemptuous despisers of his atonement would not cheerfully have said. And, no where else, do we find any thing to counteract the tendency of this passage, and to do away its noxious influence.

The address is throughout destitute of correct religious sentiment, enforced by evangelical considerations.

Dr. Nott neglects to read his pupils a solemn lesson on the subject of their guilt. He neglects to set before them the method of salvation, and to exhibit the terms of pardon and acceptance. He says nothing of our adorable Redeemer, which the Socinian, and often, perhaps, the Deist would not have said ; and he utters not a syllable in favour of vital godliness. These omissions constitute his most grievous fault.

We arrive now, at the last article in the volume before us. In Dr. Nott's third address, the errors of style are fewer by far, in our view, than in either of those, which precede. More attention and labour were obviously bestowed upon it, and the happy effects of this superiour care and exertion are plainly apparent. Dr. Nott's mind seems also to have assumed a bolder tone, than usual ; his concep-

tions are more vigorous; his language is more animated, and his composition possesses more nerve. Some too, of the sentiments which he advances, are valuable and worthy of being exhibited and enforced. This, we allow, is meagre praise. But it is all, which we can allot. The address has faults of a deeper dye, than any, which we have noticed in the other productions of Dr. Nott.

In the commencement of this address, Dr. Nott attempts to shield himself from blame for neglecting to bring forward, on that occasion, the great principles of religion.

"It is not possible, in the few moments, allotted to this address, to develope, or even hint at, all those doctrines of faith, which demand your attention. Nor should I feel, as if I had discharged the sacred duty, which I owed you, had I left these to a hasty discussion in this place and on this occasion." p. 220.

We deem this, a very unsatisfactory apology for the course, which Dr. Nott pursued. No one will imagine, that he ought to have attempted a detail of the principles, which compose a system of theology. But can this circumstance furnish any apology, for omitting entirely the great articles of religious truth? Had his instructions been already attended with a salutary influence on his pupils? Had they, without one solitary exception, been rendered humble and sincere Christians? If this were not the fact, ought not another and a final effort to have been made; ought not this last opportunity of addressing them, which was ever to be enjoyed, to have been seized and employed, to attain an object so truly invaluable? Certainly time might have been afforded to "hint" at least their need, their perishing need, of mercy and grace, and to point their attention to the merits of the Saviour, and the transforming operations of the divine spirit. Dr. Nott professes to "shape his cautions to the spirit of the times." "The spirit of the times is," he

declares, "a spirit of mutual injury, recrimination, and revenge."

Dr. Nott's efforts are aimed at preventing his pupils ever resorting to the nefarious and detestable practice of duelling, and at repressing the design of having recourse to recrimination, and abuse, and revenge, when their characters are aspersed. On the first part of his address we shall offer no remarks, although it by no means meets our entire approbation. Having inculcated mildness, forbearance and forgiveness on others, a transition is made to those, who may enter the sacred ministry. The same temper and conduct are urged on them. The last part we consider the most extraordinary and the most censurable portion of the address. Against it we have the most serious objections. We shall present our readers with a few specimens of Dr. Nott's invective.

"But the sour, sanctimonious, grace-hardened bigot embarks all his pride, gratifies all his revenge and empties his corroded bosom of its gall, and having done so, smooths over the distorted features of a countenance, on which sits the smile of Judas, and says and half believes, that he has done God service." p. 232.

"The arch-casulist soon, indeed, acquires a zeal for religion, but it is cruel: he learns to contend for the faith but he contends with acrimony, and even the cross, the sacred symbol of his Saviour's sufferings is borne about with him as an ostentatious emblem of his own humility. His own creed is the standard of doctrine, his own church the exclusive asylum of faith. He fancies that he possesses, *solus in solo*, all the orthodoxy, all the erudition, all the taste of the kingdom; and swaggering like Jupiter on the top of Olympus, he seats himself as sole umpire in all matters of faith, of fact, of science. If any one dares to pass the boundary he has fixed, or to adopt a mode of expression, he has not authorized, he brands him with the appellation of *heretick*, and hurls at his devoted head a thunderbolt." p. 233.

"In the mean time, and the more effectually to conceal the

ultimate design, the sacred names of friendship, of sincerity, of candour are flung around the devoted individual, like the garlands with which the Pagans covered the victim they had selected for the altar. Profession swells on profession; a sense of duty, a love of truth, and even thy glory, God of mercy, is declared by the insatiate executioner to govern him, while he feels, at the moment, the malice of hell rankling in his bosom, and dips his pen in the venom of the damned." p. 234.

"The theological calumniator, however muffled up in the habiliments of piety, and notwithstanding all the parade he may make of candour, impartiality and a sense of duty, will be much more successful in deceiving himself, than in deceiving the world. No matter how loudly he vociferates the glory of God, while his movements evince that he is seeking exclusively his own. However disguised, the real temper of his heart will discover itself; his insidious calumny will be referred to the proper motive, and his wounded pride will be seen scowling vengeance from behind the tattered mantle of hypocrisy, which is interposed to cover it." p. 236.

We object altogether to this strain of invective; and, we trust, on the most solid and defensible grounds.

In it Dr. Nott joins in the outcry, which those, lax in principle and irregular in practice, have ever raised against such as would neither countenance nor tolerate their sentiments and conduct. Who are usually most intense in their hatred, and most virulent in their reproaches of bigotry? Those, assuredly, who have gone astray from truth and duty, and whose deviation has subjected them to the lash of censure. Almost every unprincipled and profligate wretch, when most righteously condemned and denounced, will raise the hue and cry of intolerance and persecution. We have known some of the most upright, and candid, and benevolent preachers, within the sphere of our acquaintance, who have been reviled and loaded with acrimonious abuse

for their disapprobation and censure of men, whose tenets were grossly incorrect, and whose subsequent lives, of rank, notorious and unblushing iniquity, evinced, that, at heart, they were ever hollow and corrupt.

Such declamation amounts to nothing. It is a weapon, which every individual, who is condemned, may wield. The deist, for some of his severe animadversions, might retort upon Dr. Nott his own language, and denominate him "a sour, sanctimonious, grace-hardened bigot."

But we object to Dr. Nott's invective on another ground. There is no foundation for it, and its whole tendency is injurious, and injurious in the extreme. The instances of bigotry, with which his pupils will be molested, are not so frequent, nor so gross, that it was needful to teach them to anticipate the evil, and to prepare them to encounter it. The strain of Dr. Nott's harangue, however, would lead us to conclude, that to meet with the character, he describes, was an event of almost every day's occurrence.

But it is chiefly on account of the mischief, which it is calculated to produce, that we censure Dr. Nott's declamation. It is, in our view, adapted to bring suspicion on all, who are warmly devoted to the cause of truth and holiness. If any one is zealous in his attachment to the pure doctrines of the gospel, and strenuous in his endeavours to promote the interests of true piety and evangelical virtue; if he condemns erroneous principles, and refuses to countenance lax conduct; what, with those, who regard Dr. Nott's opinion, will he be thought and pronounced? A "sour, sanctimonious, grace-hardened bigot." On his countenance, "behind," as they will suppose, "the tattered mantle of hypocrisy," their jaundiced eyes will behold, "scowling" the worst passions of the human heart.

While Dr. Nott would thus load the pious and faithful

servants of Christ with suspicion, and put the publick upon their guard against them, the style of his invective is suited to countenance the opinion, that he only, who censures no tenets and inveighs against no conduct, who is destitute of principle, and possesses a wily, supple, and accommodating spirit, has the mild and benevolent temper of the gospel. We fear, that Dr. Nott, when composing the latter part of his address, did not so much as "*half believe*, that he was doing God service."

It is a pitiable example of inconsistency, which Dr. Nott exhibits. He recommends benevolence, in language, acrimonious and intemperate. He inculcates forgiveness with a heart, swelling with the spirit of revenge, and a voice, inflicting at the instant the severest retaliation in his power. He contends loudly for mercy and candour; but no mercy, no candour, does he manifest. He may, however, have thought, as many others seem to think, that no mercy was due a bigot; that he might lawfully be hunted down as a beast of prey. The object of his reproach "*feels*," he says, "*the malice of hell rankling in his bosom, and dips his pen in the venom of the damned.*" *What*, we may ask, rankled in the bosom of Dr. Nott, and in *what* was his pen dipped? It is strange; but, alas, such is human nature, that a man will often inveigh against tempers and vices in others, with which he is, at the very moment, in an equal degree chargeable.

In the latter part of his address, we view Dr. Nott guilty of calumny and injustice. The portrait, which he has drawn, is, at the very best, but a wretched caricature. It is grossly destitute of the exact lineaments and sober colouring, of truth. To no individual, we dare aver, can Dr. Nott point and say, "*Of that man I have given a faithful likeness.*" To the gentleman, to whom the publick has applied his philippick, he would have done extreme injustice,

had not the intemperate style, in which it was written, rendered it powerless. Indeed, we cannot but deem Dr. Nott's description, a libel on the clergy. He represents as common, a character, very rarely, if at all, to be met with; and never, we trust, with the base and odious features, which he has depicted.

With respect to valuable religious instruction and counsel, this address is as meagre as the others. Indeed, Dr. Nott goes in this just as far, and no farther, than he did in the preceding one. To show, we presume, that he was too great a man to be taught, and that he disdained, at the suggestion of another, to correct an error, he quotes, from the former address, a passage, on which animadversion had been bestowed. To us, this looks like little and sorry obstinacy. It wears the appearance of acting with the pettishness of childhood, rather than with the magnanimity of wisdom. "*Fas est et ab hoste doceri*," is a maxim, we have been used to think, strictly correct and well worthy of being carefully regarded. The justness of it Dr. Nott seems to have recognized. "The statements of our enemies," he says, "however disengenuous, may be improved to our advantage, if we have magnanimity to examine them impartially and humility to correct the errors, which occasioned, or at least countenanced, what we may deem invective." Who can forbear exclaiming, How much easier it is to talk, than to act, with propriety!

We have extended our remarks to such a length already, that we have room but for few observations on the style of this address. It possesses a considerable share of spirit and vehemence.

The epithet "grace-hardened," is to us a new one, and one, of which we cannot approve. Dr. Nott's idea must have been, as far as we can see, that the bigot is hardened

by talking and reasoning about grace. But, then, he is not hardened by grace. He could not intend to convey the opinion, that he was so hardened, that, on his heart, grace could make no impression. Such a sentiment would be palpably false. The language and the comparison "swagging like Jupiter on the top of Olympus," are neither happy nor elevated. They do not comport with the dignity and seriousness, which became Dr. Nott's station. We should suppose that Dr. Nott must have been terribly straitened for a term, by which to communicate his thought, before the uncouth word "almightiness," would have been raked from the dust and rubbish and obscurity, in which it was buried.

We have now gone through with an examination of the several articles in the volume before us. We have found much occasion for praise and frequent calls for censure. Our praise we have ever cheerfully allotted, and our censure has in no case, at least intentionally, been causeless and unmerited.

For Dr. Nott's character, his talents and his literary acquisitions, we entertain unfeigned respect. He certainly possesses a superiour understanding, and his scholarship is such, as justly entitles him to high regard. Of his sincere attachment to the religion of Christ we have no doubt. His imagination is brilliant and excursive; but not controlled and directed by the laws of correct taste. His style has valuable qualities; but is deficient in purity and accuracy, and on it, there is lavished a profusion of ornament. He is not contented with advancing his sentiments in language, simple, manly and nervous. Whatever he says, it appears to be his wish, to say it in a sparkling manner. He has formed his mode of sermonizing on what we deem faulty models. The French preachers have un-

doubtedly been his favourites, and from them he has borrowed the artifices, with which his discourses abound. His productions are not sufficiently imbued with the spirit, and fraught with the peculiar truths of the gospel. For those truths we trust, that Dr. Nott entertains a cordial regard. But they are not brought forward so often, and they have not so prominent a place assigned them, as we consider important and necessary.

Notwithstanding these exceptions to their merit, the works of Dr. Nott may be read to advantage. Many particulars may be found in them worthy of imitation. But respectable as is his character, and distinguished as is his popularity, we cannot but pronounce him an unsafe pattern. We wish to find in those, who occupy our pulpits, qualifications, which we in vain look for in Dr. Nott.

DEPARTMENT

OF THE

SCIENCES, ARTS, &c.

An Account of the Earthquakes, which have occurred in the years 1811—12.

THE numerous and violent concussions of the earth, which have been experienced, of late, throughout a considerable portion of this continent, and in some parts of Europe, have caused much alarm, and excited general attention. While we entertain the hope, therefore, that a brief narration of these interesting phenomena, together with a statement of their various effects, may be of some service in aiding the future researches of the phi-

Iosopher, we cannot doubt but it will be gratifying to the curiosity of the publick.

In laying the following detail before our readers, we would observe,—that, as the Journals, and Gazettes, of the day, have necessarily been the principal sources of our information, we may have been exposed to error through the ignorance, or credulity of informants: we have, however, rejected those accounts, which appeared false, or exaggerated; and it is believed, that the facts here communicated, are substantially correct.

Concussions of the earth were felt, in various parts of Europe, previously to their commencement on this continent. They are stated to have occurred in England, on the thirtieth of November, and the twenty-third of January; and in Germany and France, on the twelfth of December. Those which happened in Germany, moved from south to north. No effects were occasioned by them, worthy of particular notice. Whether these convulsions had any connexion with those, which, shortly after, took place in our own country, we pretend not to determine. Nor could this be done, with even a probable degree of certainty, while the causes of these phenomena are so imperfectly known.

The earthquake, or rather the successive concussions, which it is our particular business to describe, commenced on the morning of the sixteenth December, 1811, at 2 o'clock. The morning was cloudy, and, for a number of preceding days, the sky had been obscured, and the weather hazy. The first shocks were felt from the southern boundary of the United States, to the great Lakes, on the north, and from the Atlantick Ocean, westward, to an unknown distance beyond the Mississippi. Their course, as nearly as it could be ascertained, was from west to

east.* The shocks near the Mississippi, continued frequent, and severe, for a number of days. After they had subsided, the earth was suffered to rest for a considerable time: but on the twenty second and twenty-third of January, and again, on the seventh of February, the concussions returned with fresh violence. On these occasions, the earth shook,—*the mountains trembled,*—and *the perpetual hills did literally bow.*

The earthquakes moved in a horizontal direction, and the motion occasioned was not, generally, perpendicular and bounding; but either undulating, or vibrating. In many instances, things which were suspended, were made to undergo very considerable oscillations. The earth was seldom opened to any great depth, except in the vicinity of the river Mississippi. Here, indeed, the shocks were felt with the most severity, and the adjacent country was made the principal scene of desolation.

The following is, we believe, an authentick statement of

* Doctor Williams, in his account of the earthquakes of New-England, determines their course almost universally, to have been from north-west, to south-east; and considering this a well established fact, he concludes, that they had their origin in some part of those unexplored lands, which lie to the north-west of New-England. On this subject, we would merely remark, that although the *general* course of an earthquake is, in most cases, easily ascertained, its *exact* direction, it is nearly or quite impossible to determine.

That the causes of earthquakes exist to a greater degree in some places, than in others, cannot admit of a doubt; as these phenomena are known to have occurred much oftener in warm climates, and particularly in the neighbourhood of volcanoes, than elsewhere. In those large tracts of country, lying to the north-west of us, the climate is cold; and as far as we have learned, they have not been supposed much subject to subterranean fires. Why the earthquakes of New-England, therefore, should so universally have had their origin in this quarter, we are at a loss to determine. As far as the fact is supported by evidence, however, it is worthy of notice.

the effects produced in this quarter, by the concussions, which were experienced on the sixteenth of December, and a number of days immediately succeeding. Our authority for this account, is a highly interesting letter, addressed to the Editor of the New-York Evening Post, by a very respectable gentleman, who was descending the Mississippi, when this event took place. Our limits will suffer us to give only an epitome of a part of the communication. The trees of the forest were shaken as with a tempest; many were torn from their foundations, and thrown a considerable distance; vast quantities of timber, which had, apparently, lain many years in the bed of the river, rose with a strong impulse, some distance above the surface of the water. The earth was rent in innumerable instances and through the fissures, wood, coal, and a variety of combustible substances, were hurled into the air. "During the four first shocks," says the narrator, "tremendous and uninterrupted explosions, resembling a discharge of artillery, were heard from the opposite shore." In these explosions, combustible matter was thrown to great heights.*

"An incessant rumbling was heard below, and the bed of the river was excessively agitated, whilst the waters assumed a turbid and boiling appearance. Near our boat, a spout of confined air, breaking its way through the waters, burst forth, and with a loud report, discharged mud,

* The Editors have in their possession a small quantity of this material, for which they are indebted to the politeness of Professor Hulburd, who happened to be in that part of the country when these tremendous concussions took place. It resembles the coal found in the neighbourhood of Liverpool, except that it is not quite so dark coloured. It burns, without much difficulty; is more durable than common coal; emits a strong sulphureous smell, and is converted into very white ashes. The specimens which we have, exhibit a ligneous appearance on the surface, but none in the interior.

sticks, &c. from the river's bed; at least thirty feet above the surface. These spoutings were frequent, and in many instances appeared to rise to the very heavens."

Effects of this kind, though they are without doubt in many instances produced by the force of internal explosions; yet we believe they are not less frequently to be attributed to the sudden pressure of the earth, in the closing of chasms, and other violent operations. From the sixteenth to the twenty-third, the shocks were frequent, and the number, which happened within this period, is stated at eighty-nine. We have seen no detail of the effects produced here, by the concussions of January: they were doubtless as great, as in any part of the United States. A very interesting, and, we believe, accurate account of the earthquake of the seventh of February, was given by Mr. Matthias M. Speed; a part of which we shall transcribe. This gentleman was on the Mississippi, at some distance below the mouth of the Ohio. "About three o'clock," he observes, "on the morning of the seventh of February, we were waked by the violent agitation of the boat, attended with a noise, more tremendous and terrific than I can describe, or any one conceive, who was not present, or near, such a scene. The constant discharge of heavy cannon, might give some idea of the noise for loudness; but this was infinitely more terrible, on account of its appearing to be subterraneous. As soon as we waked, we discovered that the bar to which we were tied, was sinking; we cut loose, and rowed our boats to the middle of the river. After getting out so far as to be out of danger from the trees, which were falling in from the banks, the swells in the river were so great, as to threaten the sinking of the boat, every moment."

He here mentions the rapids, or falls, occasioned by the

earthquake, and estimates their height to be equal to that of the rapids in the Ohio.

“The water of the river, after it was fairly light, appeared to be almost black, with something like the dust of stone coal.”

Speaking of New-Madrid, (a place of some importance on the west side of the Mississippi, seventy miles below the mouth of the Ohio,) he says, “The former elevation of the bank, on which the town stood, was estimated at about twenty-five feet above common water. When we reached it, the elevation was only about twelve or thirteen feet. There was scarcely a house left entire,—some wholly prostrated,—others unroofed,—and not a chimney standing.”

This account furnishes additional evidence of the frequent eruptions, which took place along the shores, and on the islands, of the Mississippi, in which, sand and coal were thrown up in great quantities. It was alledged by persons, who came up the river, that there were other falls in it, more dangerous than those mentioned above.

Let us now leave this scene of violence and devastation, and trace the various concussions in their progress eastward; where we shall find them less violent and destructive. In doing this, we shall throw together the facts, without a particular reference to dates, or a scrupulous regard to the order of time in which they occurred.

At Nashville (Tennessee) the convulsions were very severe, and, what was not common, attended with an upward, bounding motion, which split the earth in various places: there arose a strong sulphureous smell. In the vicinity, a small lake, and a little river, called Pemisece, were filled with a white sand, in such quantities, as entirely to destroy them.* At Marietta, (Ohio,) the concussions

* In the Account of the Earthquakes of New-England, an instance is

were powerful ; but the motion, which they communicated to the earth, was regular, and caused little damage.

The shocks of the sixteenth were felt in Virginia, Pennsylvania, New-York, and, in one or two instances, in Connecticut.* In some parts of Virginia, they were consider-

mentioned in which sand of a similar colour was thrown up from the bowels of the earth. See *Memoirs of the American Academy*, V. I.

* We have, not long since, been informed, that several of the earthquakes of the last winter were noticed in different places in the state of Vermont. The following is the substance of a letter, communicating notes respecting them, as they were observed in the town of Westminster. It was composed by the Rev. Mr. Sage, and addressed to one of our editorial fraternity. Mr. S. remarks, that he notices only those of which he was a witness.

“The first earthquake that happened was in the month of December ; of which I made no memorandum as to the time of day, or the day of the month. The tremulous motion of the earth was considerable, but was preceded by no noise.

“The second was on the twenty-third of January, at forty minutes past nine o'clock, A. M. preceded by no report, that I noticed. The motion of the earth was so great, that it is thought a ball, suspended by a cord of three feet in length, would have vibrated six or eight inches. The weights of my clock were driven forcibly against the case during about two minutes. Many persons were singularly affected with dizziness ; some were almost thrown from their seats ; while others, in the neighbourhood, who were standing, were obliged to steady themselves by chairs, or by the sides of the room. Another light shock was observed in the evening.”

Mr. S. mentions here two more slight concussions : the one happening on the sixth of February between four and five o'clock, A. M. and the other in the evening of the same day.

“The sixth,” says Mr. S. “which was much more severe than any of the preceding, was on the seventh of February, at twenty minutes past four, A. M. Of this, we were forewarned by a noise, resembling that of a sleigh, when driven furiously upon a hard snow path. It came from the south-west, and passed off to the north-east. Immediately after the sound went over, the house was violently shaken. Every joint appeared to be racked. Tables, chairs, and every thing not closely confined, were in

ably violent. In the states farther north, they were less so.

An article, which appeared in the publick prints, from Charleston, (S. Carolina) contains the following. "December sixteenth, about three o'clock in the morning, a severe shock was felt here, preceded by a noise, like the blowing of a bellows: bells rung in the churches, clocks stopped. A slight shock was felt fifteen minutes after, and again, at eight o'clock, one sufficiently severe to throw down china."

At Augusta, (Georgia) the earthquake is stated to have been preceded by a hollow, rumbling noise, like distant thunder,—a tremulous motion followed, which increased in violence, till the agitation became alarming. The houses rocked like a cradle: there was no wind during the concussion, and the atmosphere was hazy, moist and vaporous.

In a variety of places, singular sensations were experienced. The motion of the earth, was attended with faintness, sickness, and dizziness; and, in one or two cases, with something like suffocation. These sensations are, we believe, uncommon, though not unexampled. Similar effects are related to have attended an earthquake in England, a number of years since.* They are probably produced by some noxious gass, either of subterraneous, or atmospherick origin. This gass may be freed from the matter, with which it is combined, by an insensible combustion, which takes place at the instant of the concussion. Electricians often experience the abovementioned feelings, when they make their experiments on a large scale.

motion. The weights of my clock most violently thrust against the case. Four clocks in the village stopped, and the doors of the cases of others were beaten open. There were, at this time, three successive shocks. The motion of the house seemed to be very similar to that of a vessel at anchor with a considerable sea running. The solemnity of the scene is beyond the power of language to describe."

* Rec's Cyclopaedia.

We have, hitherto, confined ourselves principally, to a consideration of the concussions of December. Those which happened at a later period, though they were more violent, exhibited little, that is uncommon; little, that could gratify curiosity, or aid philosophical investigation. The extract, which we have given from the account of Mr. Speed, fully evinces the force of the shocks which occurred in February: a few facts will be sufficient to demonstrate the severity of those that happened in January.

At Annapolis, (Maryland) so strong was the motion of the earth, that the steeple of the state-house, is asserted to have vibrated six or eight feet, and to have continued its vibration, from eight to ten minutes. At Columbia, (S. Carolina) such was the violence of the jar, that it bent the lightning-rod of the college—threw down the plastering, and cracked the chimnies of some of the houses. Similar effects were produced, in various other places.

Flashes of light attending the earthquakes, are mentioned, by different persons, whose observations were made on different occasions. They are related to have been witnessed, at each of the three principal periods of concussion. This circumstance suggests the probability of some latent connexion between these appearances, which were probably of electrical origin, and the phenomena of earthquakes. We shall not, however, on a subject involved in so much darkness and uncertainty, attempt to construct a theory for the amusement of our readers, which, at best, could be founded only upon vague conjecture.

After the seventh of February, the violence of the convulsions abated. Slight shocks, and occasional tremblings, continued to be felt at a much later date, but they were not of sufficient consequence to merit a particular notice.

The concussions, which we have been endeavouring to

describe, though not distinguished for their great and destructive effects, when compared with those, which have heretofore shaken South America, and some countries of the eastern continent, are yet memorable, as being altogether the most alarming, that the United States have ever experienced since their first settlement. They were uncommonly extensive, and, for duration, they have few parallels. Earthquakes, which have proved most violent and deleterious, have seldom been of long continuance. The agents of nature, in these cases, seem, by one mighty effort, to exhaust their strength and remit their force.

Here it was our intention to have closed our account. When we commenced writing, no convulsions, except those already described, had taken place on this continent; and of course, no others were included in our original plan. Such, however, have been the dreadful effects of the earthquake, which has since happened at Lagaira, and Caraccas, places at no great distance from our own borders,—such was its probable connexion with those, which we experienced, and so fatal was it to property and life, that we cannot forbear noticing it.

The earthquake commenced at the above places, on the twenty-sixth of March, at four o'clock in the afternoon; and such was its violence, that it demolished between five and six thousand houses, and destroyed more than ten thousand inhabitants. Out of forty churches at Caraccas, only two were left standing. The following is an extract of a letter from a Gentleman at Lagaira to a merchant in Philadelphia.

“When the first great shock occurred, I ran out of my house, and in my amazement, I turned round, and saw it rocking like a cradle, which with the roar of the earthquake, the screams of the people, and the crashing, per-

haps, of a thousand buildings, made the scene horrible beyond description." It is asserted that nine or ten hundred persons perished in two churches.*

Another communication from the same place, states, that "on the first approach of the earthquake, it appeared as though there was a discharge in the neighbourhood of some thousands of cannon. A moment after, the earth began to rise about eighteen inches, and ran in waves for about two seconds. It continued, altogether, about a minute and a half; during which, it prostrated more than two thirds of the houses, and killed, at least, one half of the inhabitants." The author of this statement alledges, that Caraccas alone, lost ten thousand of its citizens. Laguira is supposed to have lost two thousand five hundred.

Seldom has any natural calamity been equally severe and afflictive. It would, actually, have seemed an alleviation, if (as it often happens on such occasions) the earth had opened her mouth, and swallowed up the wretched sufferers,—thus, putting a period to their existence, and consigning them to the tomb, at once: but this was not their lot. They were found piled in heaps, beneath the ruins of temples, or buried in the rubbish of their own dwellings; and the miserable survivors were employed a number of days, in performing for their departed friends and fellow citizens, the rites of sepulture.

In the latest papers, mention is made of a violent shock at Laguira, on the sixteenth of April, which destroyed the few remaining buildings, and killed a number of hundreds of the inhabitants. Destructive concussions have been experienced in other parts of South America, of which, we have seen no particular account.

* It was Christmas, and the churches were crowded with people, engaged in the solemnities of the occasion.

EXTRACT OF QUERCITRON, OR ESSENCE OF YELLOW OAK
BARK.

The Yellow Oak, or Quercitron bark, has long been known, and highly approved of, by dyers in Europe. An Act of the British Parliament, dated the twenty-fifth year of George III. secures the monopoly of the yellow oak, or black oak (*Quercus nigra*), the hiccory, or walnut tree, (*Juglans alba*) and the red mangrove *Rhizophora Mangrove* of Linnæus,) to Dr. Edward Bancroft, who first imported those barks into Europe. The best quality of the Quercitron, or yellow oak bark, generally commands, in the English market, about three pounds sterling per cwt. when properly ground, or pulverized.

We understand that works are erected at Fitchburgh, in Massachusetts, for obtaining the extract of the Quercitron, by a new process, for which a patent has been obtained, and which promises to be of great publick utility. The extract, manufactured at those works, contains the virtues of the bark in substance, in a very condensed state; one pound of extract affording as much colouring matter, as fifteen or twenty pounds of the pulverized bark.

A sample of this extract has been sent to Europe, and has been there pronounced by adequate judges, after careful experiment, to be equal to the quantity of bark from which it was procured, containing all the virtues of the bark in substance, in about one twentieth part of its bulk, and possessing the advantage of being ready prepared for the dyer's use, without the leaching, steeping, or boiling, requisite in the common mode, to separate the tinct from the ligneous particles of the bark.

The mordants, for raising and setting the colours, may be the same, which are used with the pulverized bark, ma-

king a proper allowance for the condensed state in which the extract is presented to the hands of the artist.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE REPERTORY.

Gentlemen: If the subject of the following communication is not too insignificant for publick attention, it is at your service.

Bones necessary for Fowls in Winter.

It is a fact universally known, in this northern climate, that dung-hill fowls, during the season when the ground is covered with snow, intermit their laying. The reason is, that one material of which the egg is composed, they are unable to procure. This is the *carbonate of lime*, which composes the shell and part of the yolk. When the ground is bare, they obtain this substance from pebbles and common earth.

It is believed that fowls eat only those pebbles, that contain a portion of lime; if so, their object in eating them is not merely trituration, but to procure a necessary article of food.

Corn, the usual food of fowls in winter, contains but a scanty portion of lime. Wheat is known to contain it in greater abundance, and, also to be the best kind of grain to give to fowls for the production of eggs.

To furnish the necessary supply of lime, give *bones* pounded to the fineness of corn. They consist of lime very nearly assimilated to the egg-shell; and also considerable other nutritious matter, which will lessen the consumption of corn. Fowls will eat them with such eagerness, that when thrown down with corn, every particle of bone will be picked up before the corn is touched. This food contributes to their health and fatness, as well as to their fecundity.

Last winter, the writer gave a plentiful supply of bones to his fowls, and found the experiment succeeded much beyond his expectation. At no season of the year, have I had a more plentiful supply of eggs, than during the last severe winter. From the same hens, with the same keeping, I had not less than three dozen of eggs a week; whereas, the winter before, I had none. Some of my neighbours, to whom I mentioned the experiment, found it to succeed completely.

Next to bones, the best substances to give to fowls, are egg-shells, oyster-shells, chalk, unburned lime, and common earth.

Whatever contributes to a comfortable support, is not unworthy of attention. Though the saving, in a single family, may be inconsiderable, yet if this economy were adopted by every family in the state, it would make no contemptible addition to the means of our comfort.

SELECTED PAPERS.

Observations on the Expansion and Contraction of Water.

By WILLIAM CRANE, F. R. M. S. Edin.

EVERY deviation from the general effects of calorick, forms an important subject for investigation, and claims the attention both of the student and the philosopher. Amongst these curious and interesting facts, that water at the temperature of 40° has its maximum density, and on being reduced to a lower degree begins to expand until it is converted into ice, has given rise to many hypotheses and theories respecting its cause. Some have supposed this to be owing to the contraction of the vessel in which the water is contained. One of the most strenuous supporters of this opinion is Mr. Dalton, who says, "it is only apparent;"

although the experiments both of Dr. Hope and Count Rumford were made with the greatest care and precision, as were also those of Lefevre Gineau. The result of Mr. Dalton's experiments, when a glass vessel is employed, is certainly very much in favour of what he maintains, as, according to the tables in Dr. Thomson's Chemistry, the contraction of the glass and the expansion of the water coincide; yet this is not the result of the experiments made upon water contained in different vessels, as in brown earthen ware, queen's ware, iron, copper, &c. The coincidence, therefore, as the doctor observes, is only apparent; for the other bodies deviate as their expansion increases. Mr. Leslie, in his *Inquiries upon the Nature, &c. of Heat*, seems to be nearly of the same opinion. Others have adopted the idea of its arising from a peculiar arrangement of its particles which observe a certain polarity, as shown by the position of its crystals; and this was the opinion of the illustrious Dr. Black.

As water is a body the particles of which possess great mobility among themselves, and the shape of a body that moves with the greatest ease being a sphere; let us consider that this is the form of a particle of water when at the 40° and above, or, according to Mr. Dalton, at the 36° , which he estimates to be its maximum density. In the following part of this paper I prefer the 40° , as between that and 39° is the point agreed to by the majority of writers, and which agrees with the experiments I have made. The difficulty of proving this to be the shape of an atom of water is perhaps in some measure removed by considering the figure which a globule of water assumes when thrown upon a hot iron.

Then, at the degree abovementioned, I would say that the particles of water are in contact only at certain points;

but from the calorick, granting it to be a fluid, filling up the interstices, their mutual affinity is prevented from acting so forcibly as to change their figure. In illustration of this, we may take a pile of balls, as a rough comparison, each ball having for those around it a strong affinity, and which are prevented from acting upon each other, or running into a solid mass, by sand or some substance being poured into the various crevices, which nevertheless does not prevent their touching in certain points. But as by the reduction of temperature part of the calorick is withdrawn, which being interspersed throughout the water, as just explained, prevented these particles from affecting each other, the affinity they exert among themselves now begins to take place, and their shape becomes altered from that of a sphere to some other figure. Hence, as a sphere contains the greatest quantity of matter under the least given superficies, the superficial contents of these atoms will be increased in proportion as they deviate from that form.

Although they are thus enabled to act upon each other, still they attract around them a quantity of calorick, by means of which they are kept so far separate as to remain in a fluid state. But owing to the reciprocal affinity of these moleculeæ this attraction is very feeble, and on suddenly shaking the water they rush together, forming a crystalline mass, setting free the calorick they held around them, causing by that liberation a rise in the thermometer. In the same manner we can bring so near as to touch, globules of mercury, which have been previously moistened with water, without their running into one homogeneous mass; but giving the vessel in which they are placed a sudden shake, they become united, parting with the water each had attracted around it. This experiment is easily shown by throwing quicksilver upon any flat surface that

has had some water poured upon it; then gently pushing the globules of mercury, so as just to touch each other, they will not unite, owing to the pellicle of water which surrounds each. Upon the vessel being agitated, an union instantly takes place.

The next remarkable occurrence is the great and sudden expansion that takes place upon the water being converted into ice. I would now suppose that these atoms have reached their maximum of expansion, or that they deviate in the greatest possible degree from their spherical shape, and assume probably that of the primitive crystal. For after having obtained the primitive crystal of any body, we have, if we continue the chipping and diminish it ever so much, always the same figure. Again, if we apply heat, from the 32° there is observed a contraction, until the thermometer rises to the 39° or 40° , owing to these integrant molecules of the crystals again assuming the spherical form: after this the water begins to expand, which I should imagine is owing to the calorick gradually forcing these spheres further apart, and, if continued, separates them beyond the limit of the attraction they exert amongst themselves. . These atoms, being lighter than air, fly off in a state of vapour; and as they are now out of the sphere of each other's attraction, they are enabled to attract more forcibly around them the particles of calorick; and hence the increase of capacity for calorick which is observed to take place when water is converted into vapour.

In the above paper, the words *contact* and *touch* have been frequently employed: these terms are not to be understood in an abstract sense, but merely to denote that the particles of matter approach each other extremely near;—as in the experiment on the globules of mercury it is said they are placed so near as to touch. That this is not the

case is evident, for they are separated by the pellicle of water around each. Lavoisier, in his *Chemistry*, says, that the particles of the hardest bodies are not in actual contact. If that were the case, it is probable that their cohesive affinity would be so powerful as not to be affected by caloric.

Phil. Magazine.

PERPETUAL MOTION.

*Letter to a Friend respecting the Perpetual Motion, by
R. ADRAIN, Professor of Mathematicks in Queen's Col-
lege, New-Jersey.*

DEAR SIR,

The diversity of sentiment respecting the nature of Readheffer's machine, arises from the imperfect knowledge which most persons have of the first principles and laws of mechanicks. Among those who have just views of the laws by which mechanical nature is regulated, there can be but one opinion on this subject; and accordingly the greatest unanimity has ever prevailed among the best mathematicians and philosophers respecting the *perpetual motion*, an unanimity resulting not from a few rude experiments or futile argumentations, but from scientific demonstrations solidly established on the immutable laws of nature. It is true the world has been amused with numerous attempts to produce a perpetual motion, but all these originated with men who had scarcely passed the threshold of the temple of science, and who were therefore utterly unqualified to predict the results of their own mechanical contrivances, or with men who, aware of the credulity of the publick in this respect, took advantage of the circumstance to acquire a temporary applause, or to remunerate them-

selves for the time and the labour they had lost in their infatuated researches.

In some of our philosophical speculations we meet with doctrines which have nothing to support them but probability, analogy, or deductions from obscure or uncertain principles, in others our inquiries admit of accurate determination by legitimate inference from the indisputable axioms of science, or from the known and established laws of physical nature. Of this latter kind are the doctrines of staticks and dynamicks. These sciences admit of demonstration in the same manner as arithmetick and geometry: in fact, the demonstrations in mechanicks are principally derived from geometry or analysis, and cannot possibly be understood by those who are unacquainted with algebraical or geometrical reasoning. In those sciences we determine with certainty respecting the possibility or impossibility of obtaining the object of our research, and can detect the impositions of such as pretend to the discovery of truths or facts repugnant to the unquestionable principles of science.

Should a person pretend he had made discoveries in arithmetick, and assert that he had found the precise square root of the number 2, we should immediately reply that he was either an impostor, or grossly ignorant of the science of numbers; and adduce, as our reason, the demonstrations of the mathematicians that no such number as the square root of 2 can possibly exist.

Again, if it were maintained by one who studied the doctrine of mensuration, that he could determine the exact numerical value of the diagonal of a square, the side of the square being any given number of feet or inches; we could answer in a word, he is mistaken, he maintains an impossibility, as can easily be made evident to those who understand arithmetick and geometry.

We should make a similar reply to a mechanick, who pretended, that by placing a weight on an inclined plane, he could produce a horizontal motion without the descent of the weight; we should aver that the person who advanced such a position, was, if sincere in his expression, exceedingly ignorant of mechanical science, because his pretension is in direct contradiction to the established laws of nature, and to the unexceptionable demonstrations of science.

Every man of science can shew, that when a body lies on an inclined plane, the weight of the body may be decomposed into two pressures, the one down the plane, the other directly against the plane; the former of these pressures propels horizontally with a certain force an axis with wheels, or whatever supports the weight and inclined plane; the latter pressure repels the inclined plane in the opposite direction with a force precisely equal to the propelling force. If then the inclined plane be supported by any machine which has only an horizontal motion, so that the weight cannot descend, it is evident that the machine with the inclined plane and weight cannot possibly begin to move in any one direction, the propelling and repelling pressures of the weight being in all cases perfectly equal and in opposite directions.

If any one could shew by the decomposition of forces, that the propelling and repelling pressures of a weight on an inclined plane, when they are reduced to horizontal directions, are equal, or are not directly opposite; we should be obliged to admit the possibility of a perpetual motion: but since it is completely demonstrated, by the known resolution of forces, that those pressures are in all cases perfectly equal, and in opposite directions, it follows, as a direct and unavoidable consequence that a weight

supported on an inclined plane cannot possibly produce a horizontal motion; and therefore a perpetual motion in a horizontal plane by means of weights on inclined planes is absolutely impossible.

The impossibility of a perpetual motion, by such a machine as has lately been exhibited in the neighborhood of Philadelphia, may be easily shewn in another point of view. Every weight in this machine is said to move horizontally, that is, on a horizontal plane; but the gravity of any such weight is known to be exactly perpendicular to the horizontal plane on which it moves, this gravity therefore cannot have the smallest efficacy in moving the weight along the plane. This conclusion is as direct and evident as any deduction in the science of machines, and demonstrates the impossibility of a perpetual motion in which the weights, by the construction of the machine, are compelled to move in horizontal directions.

How then, it may be asked, is the machine of Readheffer continued in motion? The answer is easy; there are so many resources which an ingenious mechanick may apply, as the action of concealed springs, the untwisting of ropes, or chains, the insensible descent of weights, wheels or chains, &c. all capable of producing motion for a few hours, that we cannot perceive the smallest difficulty in accounting for the observed motion of the machine.

Thus in the drawing I have been shewn, there are two horizontal wheels and two vertical ones—the upper horizontal one suspended by four chains to an upright spindle, on which it is free to revolve and acts on a vertical wheel of *nearly* the same diameter, which is fixed on a horizontal axis—the other vertical wheel is also fixed on the same axis, and acts on a horizontal wheel fixed to the upright spindle.

Suppose now the other horizontal wheel to contain 80 teeth, and the chains twisted a quarter of a revolution before it is let down on the first vertical wheel of 81 teeth—let the next vertical wheel contain 82 teeth and act on the lower horizontal wheel which is fixt to the upright spindle and contains 81 teeth,—then by the composition of these numbers in the compound ratio of 80 to 81 and 82 to 81, the upper horizontal wheel will revolve 6562 times, while the lower revolves 6561; thus they will *apparently* move with the same velocity—yet this small difference will give sufficient power to overcome the friction of the machine for a considerable length of time, and it is easy, by a pretence, to stop the whole motion, and see it renew itself, to give a twist again to the chains.

I shall conclude with the following observations of the celebrated *Montucla*, as given in *Hutton's Mathematical and Philosophical Recreations*, vol. 11, pages 105, 106.

“One Orfyreus, announced at Leipsic in the year 1717, a perpetual motion, consisting of a wheel, which would continually revolve. This machine was constructed for the Langrave of Hesse-Cassel, who caused it to be shut up in a place of safety, and the door to be sealed with his own seal. At the end of forty days the door was opened and the machine was found in motion. This, however affords no proof of perpetual motion; for as clocks can be made to go a year without being wound up, Orfyreus' wheel might easily go forty days, and even more.

“The result of this pretended discovery is not known; we are informed by one of the Journals, that an Englishman offered 80,000 crowns for this machine; but Orfyreus refused to sell it at that price; in this he certainly acted wrong, as there is reason to think that he obtained by his invention, neither money, nor even the honor of having discovered the perpetual motion.

“ But enough has been said on this chimera of mechanics. We sincerely hope that none of our readers will ever lose themselves in the ridiculous and unfortunate labyrinth of such a research.

“ To conclude, it is false that any reward has been promised by the European powers to the person who shall discover the perpetual motion : and the cause is the same in regard to the quadrature of the circle. It is this idea, no doubt, that excites so many to the solution of these problems ; and it is proper they should be undeceived.”

Evening Post.

THE MEDLEY No. II.

Variety's the very spice of life
That gives it all its flavour.

COWPER.

TO-MORROW.

How sweet to the heart is the thought of to-morrow,
When hope's fairy pictures bright colours display !
How sweet when we can from futurity borrow
A balm for the griefs that afflict us to-day !

When wearisome sickness has taught me to languish
For health, and the comfort it brings on its wing ;
Let me hope, (oh how soon it would lessen my anguish)
That to-morrow will ease and serenity bring.

When travelling alone, quite forlorn, unbefriended,
Sweet the hope that to-morrow my wanderings will cease :
That, at home, then, with care sympathetic attended,
I shall rest unmolested, and slumber in peace.

Or when from the friends of my heart long divided,
The fond expectation, with joy how replete !

That from far distant regions, by Providence guided,
To-morrow will see us most happily meet.

When six days of labour, each other succeeding,
With hurry and toil have my spirits oppress,
What pleasure to think, as the last is receding,
To-morrow will be a sweet Sabbath of rest.

And when the vain shadows of time are retiring,
When life is fast fleeting, and death is in sight,
The Christian believing, exulting, expiring,
Beholds a to-morrow of endless delight.

But the infidel then, surely, sees no to-morrow !
Yet he knows that his moments are hasting away :
Poor wretch ! can he feel, without heart-rending sorrow,
That his prospects of joy will expire with to-day ?

In Egypt, says Russell the historian, justice was administered by a president, and thirty judges. Neither party was allowed to have advocates, or to speak in its own defence, that eloquence or sympathy might not bias the judgment of the court.

THE WANDERING BOY—A SONG, BY H. K. WHITE.

I.

When the winter wind whistles along the wild moor,
And the cottager shuts on the beggar his door ;
When the chilling tear stands in my comfortless eye !
Oh how hard is the lot of the wandering boy !

II.

When winter is cold, and I have no vest,
And my heart it is cold as it beats in my breast ;
No father, no mother, no kindred have I,
For I am a parentless wandering boy.

III.

Yet I had a home, and I once had a sire,
A mother, who granted each infant desire ;
Our cottage it stood in a wood-embowr'd vale,
Where the ring-dove would warble its sorrowful tale

IV.

But my father and mother were summon'd away,
And they left me to hard hearted strangers a prey ;
I fled from their rigour with many a sigh,
And now I'm a poor little wandering boy.

V.

The wind it is keen, and the snow loads the gale,
And no one will list to my innocent tale ;
I'll go to the grave, where my parents both lie,
And death shall befriend the poor wandering boy.



ORIGINAL.

[The ensuing lines, composed by Miss Sarah Smith of Hanover, N. H. are not presented to the publick as a specimen of her genius, or of her poetick talents. They were written while she was the prey of that slow-destroying, and deceptive disease, the consumption,—when her body was reduced to a skeleton, and her mind, it is likely, was correspondingly debilitated. She is now no more ; and if we are authorized to form a judgment from the apparent piety of her life, from her religious advice and instructions, and from the joyous tranquility of her death, we must pronounce with assurance, that she has exchanged the present for a happier world.]

Ah me ! and shall the lettered page
No more my studious thought engage
While thirsting ; but forbid to share
The sweets of knowledge treasur'd there
And must a weak, uncultur'd mind
Within this feeble frame be shrined ?
Must youth forego her vernal day,
Flit idle, unimproved away,

That from far distant regions, by Providence guided,
To-morrow will see us most happily meet.

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 Within this feeble frame be shrined ?
 Must youth forego her vernal day,
 Flit idle, unimproved away,

While vainly asks my heart to be
Thy active friend, Humanity !
Forgive, Religion ! shall a worm repine,
And dare to murmur at the will divine ?
Lord, at thy feet submissive let me fall,
O give Thyself and take my earthly all.

March 18, 1812.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

PRINCETON COLLEGE.

The Reverend Dr. Samuel S. Smith, president of Princeton College, N. J. and Dr. M'Lean, professor of Chemistry, Mathematicks and Natural Philosophy, resigned their respective offices, on the twentieth of August last. What inducements these gentlemen have had to relinquish their stations in this ancient, and respectable Institution, we have not been informed. The presidency of the College was immediately filled, by the election of the Reverend Dr. Ashbel Green, of Philadelphia. The Reverend Dr. Alexander M'Leod was appointed, at the same time, to the vice-presidency.

HAMILTON COLLEGE.

This Institution was founded the last year by the Board of Regents of New-York. New as it is, its prospects are bright and exhilarating ; and, in our opinion, it bids fair to become one of the most important and respectable seminaries in the union. It is situated in the town of Clinton, on a spot of ground, we are told, remarkably picturesque and beautiful ; and, the country around it, to a considera-

ble distance, is uncommonly luxuriant, and well populated. Thousands of families there are, who can give their sons the blessings of knowledge more conveniently at this Institution, than at any other. It must, therefore, be well supplied with students.

The government, delighting to foster every literary effort, that promises utility to the country, and concluding, as we do, that an attention to the good education of youth forms one of the strongest bulwarks, that can be erected for the security of their civil and religious rights, have made a donation to this College of 50,000 dollars. Individuals, in the vicinity, we understand, have, with a liberality, which does them great credit, added 50,000 more.

The business of instruction commences under the most favourable auspices—with a capital of 100,000 dollars, and under the guidance of men of talents and experience. The Reverend Dr. Backus, lately of Bethlem in the state of Connecticut, fills the presidency; and Dr. Noyes, formerly a professor at Fairfield N. Y. occupies the chair of Chemistry. These gentlemen, with whom we have the pleasure to be acquainted, will, we have no doubt, do honour to their respective stations. Mr. Norton, principal of the Academy in the same place, is, we learn, elected to the professorship of Languages.—Whether there are tutors, or other professors yet appointed, we have not heard.

The following is the number of young gentlemen, who received the first degree of literary honour at the Colleges of New-England in the year 1812.

AT MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE - - - - 26

Present number of undergraduates—113

AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT - - 8

AT WILLIAMS' COLLEGE - - - - - 23

Present number—85

BOWDOIN COLLEGE - - - - - 7

BROWN UNIVERSITY*

DARTMOUTH UNIVERSITY - - - - - 34

YALE COLLEGE - - - - - 47

Present number—313

HARVARD UNIVERSITY - - - - - 43

Present number—281

* From this College we have received no return.

MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE.

The Reverend John Hough, lately of Vergennes, has been elected professor of Languages in this Institution, instead of professor Hulburd, who, on account of his ill health, had resigned. Mr. Hough has accepted the appointment, and entered on the duties of his office.

BIBLOMANIA.

This *disorder* has, of late, raged in England, to a degree, of which, we believe, no parallel can be found in the annals, of literature. At the auction of Sir James Pulteney's library, some of the scarce Delphin Classics were knocked off at the following enormous prices;

Cicero's Philosophical Works	- . . £59 6	= \$273,70
Prudentius	- - - - - 16 5	6 = \$75,00
Statius	- - - - - 54 12	= \$255

At the sale of the Duke of Roxburgh's library the prices were still more extraordinary :

A set of Sessions Papers, from 1690

to 1803, sold for - - - - - £378=\$1744,61

A collection of half-penny Ballads and

Garlands, pasted in three vols. . 478 15=\$2017,31

The Mirror of the World (1486) - 351 15=\$1623,46

The Recuyeil of the History of Troye

by Raoule le Fevre - - - - - 1060 10=\$5086,92

Il Decameroni di Baccaccio, fol. . 2260=\$10430,77

METEOROLOGY.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS,

Made and epitomized at Middlebury College.

THE thermometer employed to ascertain the temperature was constructed by Egerton and Smith of Liverpool, and is furnished with Fahrenheit's scale. It is suspended on the northern side of a house, about six feet from the ground, open to the weather, but unexposed to the direct rays of the sun. The temperature has usually been noted in summer, at the hours of 6, 12, and 9; and in winter, at 7, 12, and 9; but in extraordinarily cold or hot weather, it has been observed and recorded more frequently. In this sketch, we shall give only the greatest, and the least monthly *mean* temperature, and the greatest, and the least degree of heat, that has been noticed during the same period. The greatest mean number is found by adding all the largest numbers in the register together, and dividing the sum by the number of days. And the same, with the smaller

numbers. We have only room to present our readers with an abridged account of the temperature during the coldest and warmest months of the year. No register of the weather was kept for several months in 1812, owing to the observer's ill health, or absence.

		REMARKS.
Last 10 days in June 1811	Greatest mean tem. $79^{\circ}\frac{4}{5}$	Wind generally N. & N. W. The mercury when exposed to the sun rose once, in this month, to 132.
	Least mean tem. 66°	
	Greatest heat 95	
	Least heat 54	
July 1811	Greatest mean tem. 83°	21 days fair; 10 cloudy, or rainy. Wind commonly S. and S. W.
	Least mean tem. 66	
	Greatest heat 94	
	Least heat 56	
Dec. 1811	Greatest mean tem. 18°	Snow fell about eight inches deep. From this time, the ground was invisible, till the seventh of April.
	Least mean tem. 9	
	Greatest heat 36	
	Least heat (below 0) 12	
Jan. 1812	Greatest mean tem. 19°	Fifteen days fair.
	Least mean tem. 13	
	Greatest heat 40	
	Least heat (below 0) $19^{\circ}\frac{5}{6}$	

As the weather was remarkably severe during this month we shall insert a Daily Journal of the temperature for seven of the coldest days, for the purpose of exhibiting the comparative temperature between this place, and Cambridge, Mass. Providence, R. I. New-Haven, Con. and Brunswick, D. M.

	7 A. M.	8 A. M.	9 A. M.	Noon	4 P. M.	9 P. M.	10 P. M.	Mean
Jan 16	16° below	15° b.	12° b.	10° bel.	12° b.	18° b.		15° 5-6 bel.
17	10° below		6° b.	12° above				1° 3-5 bel.
18	19° below		15° b.	10° b.	9° b.	19° b.	19° 5-6 b.	15° 1-2 bel.
19	15° below		11° b.	8° b.	10° b.	10° b.		11° bel.
20	10° below		10° b.	6° b.				8° 2-3 bel.
21	6° below		4° b.	2° abo.	6° b.			3° 1-2 bel.
22	13° below		10° b.	6° abo.	6° b.			5° 3-4 bel.

THE MONTHLY RESULT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS,
MADE ONE MILE EAST OF THE COURT-HOUSE,
IN PROVIDENCE, RHODE-ISLAND, 1810.

Months	Average heat	Greatest heat	Least heat	Average barom.	Greatest range	Prevailing Wind	Inches of rain
Jan.	22°	50°	3½ <i>bel.</i>	30,20	0,96	N. E.	2,6
Feb.	34	53	1½ <i>abov.</i>	30,80	0,95	N. W.	2,8
Mar.	33	45	19	29,56	1,62	N. W.	4,3
April	48½	68½	31	30,44	2,25	N. & S.	1,2
May	60½	86	40	30,11	0,77	N. & S.	0,8
June	66	81	47	30,16	0,47	N. & S.	5,1
July	67	81½	48	30,15	0,37	W. & variable	3,3
Aug.	70	84	53	30,09	0,55	N. E. & S. E.	3,8
Sept.	60	72	44	30,54	0,35	N. easterly	4,2
Oct.	53	77	30	30,13	1,14	N. W.	0,3
Nov.	36	52	23	30,11	0,82	N. W.	3,6
Dec.	27	50	13	30,03	0,93	N. & S.	1,7

Rain this year, 1810, 33,7

The general average of the year 49°

The general average of the greatest heat in the year 69°

The general average of the least heat 29°

N. B.—The Thermometer stands about 6 feet from the ground in a vacancy between two houses, where the sun never shines.—Open to the N. & N. E.

OBSERVATIONS MADE IN 1811.

Months	Average heat	Greatest heat	Least heat	Average barom.	Greatest range	Prevailing Wind	Inches of rain
Jan.	24°	50°	6°	30,25	1,05	N W & N E	1,1
Feb.	22½	43	6	30,50	0,63	N W & N E	1,5
Mar.	38½	68	12½	30,10	1,16	N & S	4,6
April	44	62½	30	30,19	0,95	N & S	0,4
May	55	70	38	30,22	0,62	Southerly	2,3
June	71	87½	54	30,14	0,56	Northerly	1,5
July	74	91	57	30,10	0,41	S	3,8
Aug.	72	90	55	30,16	0,35	N & S	2,5
Sept.	67	84	41	30,23	0,48	N & S	1,9
Oct.	55	74	31	30,20	0,58	S & variable	4,2
Nov.	39½	53½	18	30,11	0,78	N S & var.	7,8
Dec.	25	51	3	29,96	1,33	S W & N W	3,1

Rain this year, 1811, 34,7

Average heat of the year 48°

Greatest heat averaged 67°

Least average heat 29°

The ensuing observations, made at Cambridge, (Mass.) and communicated (we presume, by Professor Farrar,) to the Editor of the Columbian Centinel, are copied from that Paper, of February 1, 1812:

THE WEATHER.

FROM A CAMBRIDGE CORRESPONDENT.

LAST Saturday the mercury in the thermometer stood at 5° below zero early in the morning. It continued to descend some time after sun-rise, was stationary at 6° below till about 9h. A. M.; at 10h. it stood at 5° below, at 12h. 4° below, at $1\frac{1}{2}$ P. M. 3° below, at 2h. 2° below. This was one of the most remarkably cold days of which we have any account in this place. It was not so uncomfortable as the cold Friday, which was so severely felt two years ago, because the transition was less sudden, and the wind less violent. But the degree of cold as indicated by the thermometer, was considerably greater, estimating the temperature by the mean of three observations taken at the same hours in the morning, in the afternoon, and in the evening. The following are observations taken with the same instrument, in the same place, and at corresponding hours:

Jan. 19, 1810—8h. A. M. 5° below, at 2h. P. M. 2° below, at 9h. P. M. 6° below, mean $4\frac{1}{2}$ below.

Jan. 18, 1812—8h. A. M. 6° below, at 2h. P. M. 2° below, at 9h. P. M. $9^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ below, mean 5° 5-6 below.

Upon looking over the Meteorological Journal kept at this place, I find but two days colder than last Saturday during the last twenty-two years. One of these was the 23d of January, 1792, when the thermometer stood at the hours above mentioned, $12^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ below, 2° below, 5° below, giving at a mean $6^{\circ}\frac{1}{3}$ below. The other was the 26th of Jan. 1807, the thermometer standing at 9° below, 1° below, $9^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ below, mean $6^{\circ}\frac{1}{3}$ below. Also a comparison of the
U.

observations of July last with those of last Saturday, present a greater range of the thermometer than is to be found in the same interval during the above period of twenty-two years; the greatest and least elevation being 102° , and 10° below, equal to 112° . The following are the extremes of temperature for each year since 1789:

<i>extreme cold. ext heat. range</i>				<i>ext. cold. ext. heat. range</i>			
1790	12° below	90°	102°	1801	1° below	97°	98°
1791	2	92	94	1802	3	91	94
1792	12	91	103	1803	4	95	99
1793	2	92	94	1804	2	91	93
1794	0	90	90	1805	8	96	99
1795	2	90	92	1806	6	93	99
1796	$11\frac{1}{2}$	90	$91\frac{1}{2}$	1807	16	90	106
1797	$12\frac{1}{2}$	89	$101\frac{1}{2}$	1808	6	$96\frac{1}{2}$	$102\frac{1}{2}$
1798	2	$93\frac{1}{2}$	$95\frac{1}{2}$	1809	7	93	100
1799	6	90	96	1810	7	91	98
1800	2	95	97	1811	8	102	112

The greatest degree of cold which I have noticed during the few last cold days was on Saturday night about 12 o'clock, when the mercury in the thermometer had descended a little more than 10° below *zero*. It would probably have fallen several degrees lower had the weather continued fair till morning. But at five o'clock, when the sky was overcast it had risen 2° ; and although it continued to rise, the cold was very unusual for a storm.

A singular phenomenon occurred yesterday. The thermometer rose in the course of the forenoon from 6° to 28° and descended again to 10° before 2 o'clock in the afternoon, occasioned apparently by the wind shifting to the east, and back again. Some remarked that there was a slight fall of rain about the time the weather was the most moderate.

AN OBSERVER.

Cambridge, Jan. 21, 1812.

P. S.—The following is an account of the state of the thermometer for this period of cold weather, including a

week. Short intervals of more extreme cold are not unfrequent; but such a degree of cold for so many days in succession, it is believed, is not to be found in the records of the thermometer in this place.

	8 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Mean.
Jan. 16	5° above	8° above	1° above	4 $\frac{2}{3}$ ° above
17	1 below	10 do.	3 do.	4 do.
18	6 do.	2 below	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ below	5 $\frac{5}{6}$ below
19	5 do.	3 above	4 above	2 $\frac{2}{3}$ above
20	6 above	10 do.	7 do.	7 $\frac{2}{3}$ do.
21	1 do.	7 do.	2 below	2 do.
22	7 below	5 do.	6 do.	2 $\frac{2}{3}$ below.

Average temperature for the week 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ above nearly.

January 24, 1812.

OBSERVATIONS,

Copied from the Meteorological Journal, kept at Yale College, by Professor Day. They commence with the 14th of December, 1811, and end with the last of January 1812. The extremes of heat and cold only are transcribed.

Dec.	Ext. heat	Ext. cold	1812	Ext. heat	Ext. cold	Jan.	Ex. h°	Ext. cold
1811 14	24°	14°	Jan. 1	39°	32°	17	20°	8°
15	44	13	2	35	29	18	7	1
16	36	25	3	30	26	19	3	-6
19	26	18	4	40	29	20	15	7
20	22	4	5	41	31	21	10	5
21	32	3	6	39	31	22	7	-6
22	39	29	7	36	25	23	26	13
23	41	22	8	38	26	24	32	25
24	14	0	9	27	18	25	36	29
25	21	6	10	28	17	26	39	34
26	35	19	11	27	13	27	40	30
27	38	18	12	20	12	28	33	20
28	26	20	13	31	16	29	33	25
29	31	12	14	40	16	30	38	34
30	29	19	15	38	16	31	42	31
31	31	20	16	17	9			

Greatest mean heat for December, is 30° $\frac{3}{8}$ nearly.

Least mean heat - - - - - 15° $\frac{1}{8}$

Greatest mean monthly heat for January, 29° nearly.

Least mean monthly heat - - - - - 19° $\frac{2}{3}$ nearly.

OBSERVATIONS,

Made at Providence, for January 1812.

Jan. 9	A.M.	3 P.M.	10 P.M.	Remarks.	Jan. 9	A.M.	3 P.M.	10 P.M.	Remarks.
1	36°	40°	35°	First snow	17	4°	10°	4°	
2	31	32	29	this season	18	—4	I	9	
3	27	27		fell Dec.	19	—4			Fine sled.
4	30	34	34	24, 1811.	20	12	13	9	ding.
5	31	34	31		21	4	6	5	
6	31	38		Snowdrifts	22	—5	5	0	Once only
7	28	36	32	are deep &	23	18	27	21	since 1790,
8	31	36		the roads	24	24	22	18	the mercu-
9	24	26		shut up.	25	27	33	27	ry stood
10	19	26			26	38	40	37	16° below
11	20	25			27	37	30	32	0. This
12	16	20			28	20	30	27	was in Jan.
13	19	27			29	20	28	26	1807.
14	17	27			30	36	33	33	
15	37		25	River fro-	31	37	40	32	
16	7	11	1	zen.					

In a letter, received some months since, by one of the Editors, from Professor Cleveland, of Bowdoin College, Brunswick, D. M. we find a concise account of the severity of the temperature during a part of the last winter. We shall take the liberty to copy a portion of the letter.

“In December,” observes the Professor, “we had no remarkable degree of cold. In no instance was it more than 1° below zero. On the 24th the *maximum* of cold was $+7^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$, and that of heat $+16^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$. The monthly mean temperature, deduced from three observations a day, was $+26^{\circ} 8$. But in January, we had cold enough to balance all this mildness.—I ought here to remark, that I employ Fahrenheit’s Thermometer, as constructed by Mr. Six. It shows the greatest heat, and the greatest cold, during the observer’s absence. Its accuracy has been ascertained.

January, 1812.

Mean of the greatest cold $+6^{\circ} 4$

Mean of the greatest heat $+22^{\circ} 4$.”

The writer has fortunately transmitted a register of the *maxima* of cold observed for eight days, seven of which are the same as abovementioned.

Jan.	Greatest cold.	Jan.	Greatest cold.
16	—10°, or below 0.	20	—4° 5, or below 0.
17	—28	21	—5
18	—12 5	22	—11
19	—25	23	—21

Mean of the greatest cold during this period $14^{\circ} 5.8$.

In 1807, remarks Professor Cleveland, my thermometer fell to -30° in the air, but the cold then was of short continuance.”